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AUTHOR Stanton, Geoff; And Others
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ABSTRACT

This guide is intended for continuing education tutors in England who are concerned with the design and implementation of curricula intended to promote the development of social and life skills (SLS) in 16-19 year olds as part of a Unified Vocational Preparation scheme. After a brief description of the background and the current usage of the term "social and life skills," the guide offers the authors' views of the nature of SLS teaching (i.e., that it is an area of personal development, rather than a subject or course). The guide then offers a planned curriculum as a hypothesis, suggesting that teachers using it test its feasibility and effectiveness. The curriculum offered provides a framework in which experimentation can take place constructively, and some instruments to help with testing of the hypothesis. Models of SLS development are provided for experimentation. The document concludes by considering some of the practical issues which arise in the course of implementing curricula, such as selecting content for SLS schemes and evaluating SLS offerings. Descriptions of publications which may be sources of teaching and learning materials are contained in the appendix to the guide. (KC)

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Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit

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DEVELOPING SOCIAL AND LIFE SKILLS

strategies for tutors

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The Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit (FEU) is an advisory, intelligence and development body for further education. It was established in 1977 by the Secretary of State for Education and Science to make possible a more coordinated and cohesive approach to curriculum development in FE by

(1) reviewing the range of existing curricula and identifying overlap, duplications and deficiencies

(2) determining priorities for action to improve the total provision and suggesting ways in which improvement can be effected

(3) carrying out specific studies, helping with curricular experiments, and contributing to the evaluation of objectives, and

(4) disseminating information about the process of curriculum development in FE.

After an initial review the Board of Management decided that the work of the Unit should begin with the lower levels of further education. Previous reports from FEU have considered specific programmes of vocational preparation but this document is concerned with an area of learning which occurs in a large number of courses. It may also be helpful to tutors and trainers who work outside the FE sector.

The Board is indebted to the Study Group who produced "Developing Social and Life Skills" and is most grateful for the assistance afforded by them and their organisations.

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January 1980

Geoffrey Melling
Director

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Preface

This report is the product of a small Study Group set up by the Unit's Board of Management and convened by an Officer of the Unit. Its membership was

G P Stanton	Development Officer, FE Unit (Convenor)
E P Clark	Advisory Teacher for F/HE, ILEA
Dr R Stradling	Research Director, Hansard Society
A G Watts	Executive Director, National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling.

The Group met for the first time in November 1978, and had seven more meetings over the next nine months, working to the following terms of reference.

"With respect to non-advanced courses in Further Education —

1. To examine and comment on alternative interpretations/definitions of the term Social and Life Skills.

2. To compare and contrast the role of Social and Life Skills as

   (i) an independent course or area of learning
   (ii) an "additive" component of other courses or schemes
   (iii) a set of objectives integrated overtly or implicitly in other syllabuses and/or in various teaching/learning situations.

3. To examine the extent to which differences in usage of the term do or should relate to such things as the level of attainment of participants, whether they are full or part-time students on vocational or general courses, and whether they are employed, have failed to find employment, or are not yet seeking work.

4. To analyse the implications of (1), (2) and (3) above in terms of

   (i) appropriate teaching and learning methods
   (ii) learning materials required
   (iii) the expertise demanded of tutors, and their teaching roles."

The Study Group took the view that Social and Life Skills was not an entity in itself and that its characteristics and their implications could not be described in absolute terms. The Group therefore approached the first part of its remit by defining a series of idealised approaches, or "models", and discussing the potential advantages and possible risks associated with each of them. Methods are then suggested by which planned or existing schemes can be tested against the models so as to enable tutors to make the necessarily local decisions on the issues raised by the second half of the remit.

To have attempted to represent within the Group all the various interested parties and areas of expertise involved in Social and Life Skills teaching would have been to make it a very large body. Instead, it was kept small, but it worked on information, materials and views made available to it by those working in the field — whose help is gratefully acknowledged. One of the Group's meetings took the form of a seminar, to which were invited individuals involved in Social and Life Skills teaching in a variety of contexts. Liaison was established with the Profile Task Group of the Manpower Services Commission, which had an interest in Social and Life Skills as a component of the Youth Opportunities Programme, and a representative of the PTG attended one of the concluding meetings of the Study Group.

The FE Unit has commissioned the National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling to undertake a review and synthesis of approaches to social education to be found outside FE. The research officer for that project, **Rosemary Lee,** was co-opted to the Group after her appointment in January 1979. The NICEC report, which is intended to enable FE teachers to benefit from experience gained elsewhere, should be available in the Spring of 1980.

The FE Unit would welcome comments on this report and, in particular, accounts of attempts to adopt the approach it advocates.

GEOFF STANTON
Development Officer
Further Education Unit

Introduction

1. This report is written primarily for FE tutors who are concerned with the design and implementation of curricula intended to promote the development of "Social and Life Skills" in 16–19 year olds. They may be interested in the development of "Social and Life Skills" in the context of a wide range of courses — full and part-time, for the employed and the unemployed, for the most and the least able.

2. After a brief description of the background to the current usage of the term, we offer our view as to the nature of Social and Life Skills teaching. In general, we regard Social and Life Skills as an area of personal development, rather than as a subject or course. We have found that interpretations of the term differ widely and that the contexts in which it is being implemented are increasingly varied. We therefore suggest that those responsible for Social and Life Skills provision should regard themselves as being in charge of a carefully controlled experiment. Any curriculum has to embody a number of assumptions, and we argue that it is most productive to see the planned curriculum as a hypothesis, and its implementation as being a test of the educational theories on which it is based, the feasibility of its aims, the effectiveness of its methods, and so on. We accordingly attempt to provide (i) a framework in which experimentation can take place constructively, and (ii) some instruments to help with effective testing. We then conclude by considering some of the remaining practical issues which arise in the course of implementing schemes.

3. We quote from examples of practice to illustrate the points we wish to make, but we are not offering here ready made schemes or even a selection of best practice. Appendix I does, however, contain descriptions of some publications which may be useful sources of teaching and learning materials.

The Current Use of the Term "Social and Life Skills"

BACKGROUND

4. Terms such as "Social Education" or "Social Studies" have of course been in common use for some time*. The term "Social and Life Skills" although a more recent arrival, has become increasingly prominent of late, particularly in connection with schemes for 16–19 year olds. Several factors have probably contributed to this trend. Their relative importance varies in different contexts (and there is always an element of "fashion" in such things) but the major influences seem to be

(i) a concern that young people may lack the necessary "action skills" required for a good start in independent adult life.

(ii) a growing realisation that it is not just the possession or acquisition of **technical** skills which enables a young person to make a success of work**

(iii) a belief that extended full-time schooling and/or lack of adult employment may deprive some young people of access to contexts in which certain Social and Life Skills would hitherto have been developed naturally

(iv) the greater attractiveness of the term "Social and Life Skills" to some employers, young people and training agencies. Reference to "skills" implies fairly quick and measurable results. Thus, whereas the term "Social Studies" tends to emphasise the understanding of society at an abstract level, "Social and Life Skills" tends to emphasise the acquisition of practical competencies or "coping skills".

5. The term came into common use in the UK, in connection with 16–19 year olds, after the publication by the manpower Services Commission of its "Instructional Guide to Social and Life Skills".*** The Guide was intended to be particularly relevant to those running schemes under the Commission's Work Experience Programme for unemployed school-leavers (now merged into the Youth Opportunities Programme).

6. The term is now also used to describe components of UVP schemes (for **employed** young people), and either the label or the concept appears more and more in the context of other schemes of education or training for the 16–19 age group. Sometimes the label may be adopted as a more modish name for some existing practice (elements of careers education, counselling or general studies, for instance). In other cases (such as the change from "English" to "People and Communications" in the new courses of the Business Education Council) one can detect a conceptual shift being made similar to that from "social studies" to "social and life skills".

7. All this is to be expected, not least because many FE staff work on more than one type of course. Such cross fertilisation can be very useful, but it raises the danger of

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*A forthcoming report, commissioned by FEU from NICEC, will amongst other things discuss the lessons to be learned by FE tutors from approaches adopted elsewhere.

See the **A–Z Study, ITRU publication SY4. (Industrial Training Research Unit Ltd., Lloyds Bank Chambers, Hobson Street, Cambridge, 1979.)
Also, **The Technician in Engineering,** Engineering Industry Training Board, Research Report No. 1, 1970

***This guide drew on experience gained by the MSC in their experimental "Wider Opportunities Courses". These were evaluated by ITRU **(Research Paper TR10),** and the same organisation subsequently published the **CRAMP Approach to the Teaching of Social and Life Skills,** written by Michael Pearn. The experience gained by the Canadians in their **"Newstart" programme** influenced all this work.

materials, approaches and objectives which have been developed (and **perhaps** evaluated) in one context being inappropriately transferred to others. This is particularly true in the case of Social and Life Skills since, in our view, it is not a "subject" which has a "distinct" existence. We hope that the approach we adopt in the rest of this report will help tutors implement provision appropriate to their circumstances.

8. Thus we see a growth in both the use of the term and in the curricular approach it represents, though the two are not always connected. In general, though, we can say that the term "Social and Life Skills" is used to label

(a) curricula whose objectives have been primarily derived from a real or imagined analysis of the social demands made on people at work and in the everyday requirements of life in the community

rather than

(b) curricula whose objectives have been primarily derived from the basic tenets of the relevant academic subjects.

9. Reactions to the use of the term "Social and Skills" vary from pleasure that the creation of a new label has legitimised and emphasised some worthwhile activities and objectives, to fear that a pernicious educational, or anti-educational, policy is emerging undebated. Developments in provision for the 16–19 group are, necessarily, happening so quickly at the moment that teachers, trainers, and others directly involved with the young people, may be too busy setting up schemes, producing materials, and so on, to have time for "philosophical" matters, or even to work out the longer-term practical consequences of current activity.

10. This is another reason why we believe that a more analytical look at developments is now necessary in order that changes of fashion may be distinguished from those of substance, and practical problems distinguished from those of principle. **Agreement based solely on the loose or bland use of similar words can, in the long run, be as destructive to real progress as an unnecessary polarisation of views arising from different meanings being given to the same words.**

TERMINOLOGY IN THIS REPORT

11. At the moment, some people use "Social and Life Skills" as a portmanteau term, to cover an undifferentiated range of learning activities. Others distinguish between Social Skills and Life Skills — the former being concerned with people's relationships with other people, the latter with people's relationships to everyday things.

12. We would like to see Life Skills as the all-embracing term. Life Skills could then be subdivided into Social Skills and Coping (or Life-Management) Skills. "Social Skills" would include more than face-to-face contact, since people may relate to others via letters, the telephone, and on a group or individual basis. "Coping Skills" would include dealing with everyday apparatus and procedures, such as using a public telephone, filling forms, reading maps, finding accommodation, and so on.

13. Because of the lack of consensus with regard to the use of "Social and Life Skills", and because of qualifications we would wish to attach to the word "skills" (see section 5), we do not find the term an easy one to use. It is, however, well established by now, and to modify it or to coin another might be to produce more confusion. We shall therefore compromise by referring to "SLS" (with apologies to those who find initials irksome). We shall also tend to use the phrase "SLS development", since we do not think SLS is a fixed entity which can give its name to a subject or training programme (see section 4).

An Experimental Approach to SLS Development

14. A theme which runs through this report is the suggestion that teachers of SLS should see themselves as being responsible for a controlled experiment. Any planned curriculum is to some extent a "hypothesis". It will embody certain assumptions about what learning processes are appropriate; it will contain some objectives in preference to others thought to be less significant or less directly contributory to the overall aims; it will be constructed on the basis of judgements about the time and resources necessary for certain activities; and so on.

15. Furthermore, these and other elements are in a dynamic relationship to each other. Each affects the others, so that the total effect of the various decisions which are made can only be determined by implementing the curriculum, and evaluating it.

16. Of course, one can avoid seeing the curriculum in this way by becoming the disciple of a particular approach, and remaining committed to it until/unless it becomes discredited. More insidiously, and perhaps more commonly, one may be unaware of the assumptions embodied in what one does, or of the existence of alternative approaches. Often we take decisions without taking steps to evaluate the consequences. Even more often, things just happen without a conscious decision having been made.

17. With regard to SLS development, tutors have particular cause to test the ground before them because of the rapid development (and lack of clarity) of the concept, and its application to new and varied contexts*.

18. The sudden popularity of the concept has resulted in considerable diversity of practice. Some tutors provide a lot of factual material in SLS "courses" — about health, civil rights, obtaining jobs, etc. Others emphasise the acquisition of coping skills, such as form-filling, using the telephone, reading bus-maps. Some concentrate on interpersonal relationships, perhaps through role-playing disputes and analysing decision-making. Others emphasise the acquisition of specific attitudes (eg towards time-keeping or tidiness), or of more general attributes such as confidence or initiative. Although these approaches interconnect, and many teachers mix them, it is also possible to find examples of practice which do not overlap at all.

19. The picture is complicated further by the variety of contexts in which the SLS concept has been applied. The people whose SLS development is being promoted include groups who have jobs that directly require it (eg shop assistants, airline staff), groups of high previous attainment (eg managers), groups thought to be "disadvantaged" (eg ex-prisoners, recent immigrants) and individuals on schemes such as YOP** or UVP*** where there may be no one set of characteristics shared by all participants. Indeed participants in YOP or UVP schemes may not form a "group" at all, in the usual sense. They have a negative characteristic in common (being unemployed, or having a job which did not previously allow for concurrent education or training) but there may be no coherent set of attainments, aspirations or background around which a single optimum form of provision could be devised.

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*Teachers of well established subjects may, in some cases, sensibly argue that tried and tested approaches already exist, and that a great deal of innovation and evaluation would be an indulgence.

**__Youth Opportunities Programme__ — for unemployed young people

***__Schemes of Unified Vocational Preparation__ — for employed young people.

20. Even if the general characteristics of SLS teaching, and the present stage of its development, did not cause us to suggest the notion of "teacher as experimenter", there would still be strong reason for us to do so because of its value in promoting an appropriate and feasible curriculum and the better development of both staff and students.

21. "Experiment" should not however, mean messy trial and error, producing confusion, demoralisation and ineffective learning. We believe that this report contains a framework and some instruments to help prevent this.

22. To this end, we offer a description of SLS development which we think distinguishes it from other teaching, without prejudicing the particular approach to be adopted. We then attempt to highlight the basic features of different approaches, and to point out the implications, the possible advantages and the potential risks of each. We subsequently discuss alternative criteria for selecting content in different circumstances, and suggest how effective evaluation of the curriculum can be encouraged. We conclude by discussing some practical issues of implementation.

Expressing SLS as a Check-list

23. We offer the following general description of SLS development.

(a) SLS refers to an area of learning or aspects of an individual's development, rather than a subject, course, or further education programme.

(b) Thus, SLS may best be described in the form of a "check-list" of objectives or learning experiences, rather than in the form of a syllabus.

(c) It follows that FE teachers concerned with SLS need to decide what learning related to the check-list is likely to have taken place previously, or to be taking place concurrently, before being able to work out what provision should be made in college.

(d) It may not, of course, be a straight-forward matter to discover what learning opportunities have presented themselves in a young person's life outside college, but the best way to find out — both practically and educationally — may be from a dialogue with the young person concerned*. In other words, this investigation makes up the first stage of the SLS curriculum.

(e) This does not mean that all the college provision will be concerned with giving more "input". Much of it will be a matter of reinforcing and consolidating the learning possibilities generated by the current activities of the learner outside college. There will probably remain a residue of specific learning which the young people will not otherwise get, and perhaps some pre-requisite learning needs which have to be satisfied before further SLS development can effectively take place.

24. If it is accepted that SLS can usefully be described in the form of a check-list, then 3 major issues arise.

(a) The **derivation** of the check-list. How is it to be derived, and by whom?

(b) The **kinds** of items in the check-list. What are the differences between them, and what are the implications of these differences for teaching and learning?

(c) **Priorities** within the list. Which items are essential? Which need to be covered first? Which can be left out if circumstances demand? How might this vary in different contexts?

We tackle these questions in the next four sections.

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*Some tutors prepare a list of simple key questions to help with this. In one case these questions are embodied in a questionnaire or set of cards on which the learner works (with a tutor) in order to analyse his or her work experience. See Appendix III for a further development of this approach.

The matter of learning opportunities can also be a fruitful topic for discussion between tutors and work supervisors, youth leaders, etc, where it can promote effective liaison and understanding, as well as provide useful information. In some cases research results analysing the demands made/opportunities presented by certain jobs will be available. The learner's perspective, however, remains vital. See para 71.

The Relationship Between "Skill" and Competent Performance

25. We have discussed earlier the current usage of the term "Social and Life Skills". From this and the examples of differing approaches given in Section 3 it is apparent that, in practice, more than just "skill" has been included. Even if all items could be *called* skills, by using a very broad definition of the term, we have our doubts whether it would be sensible to do this, for two main reasons.

(a) It can be misleading to use the same term for a variety of things which are best learned in very different ways.

(b) It is misleading to dissociate the learning of skills from other forms of learning, for example
   — pre-requisite information,
   — conceptual frameworks which enable the intelligent **deployment** of skills,
   — attitudes which affect their development and use.

26. Certainly, we do not see the development of general competence or capability as being simply a process of **accumulating** skills. We think there are two key issues which illustrate this: (i) levels of skills, and (ii) skills and emotions.

LEVELS OF SKILLS

27. It may be important to distinguish between (a) relatively simple skills, (b) compound (or complex) skills, and (c) the ability to deploy a compound skill.

For example

(a) (b) (c)

steering ⟷ riding a bike ⟷ riding safely in traffic

28. A "compound skill", such as riding a bike, is more than a collection of simple skills. It also involves an organising or co-ordinating ability. Its development may still, however, only require well-organised practice. The ability to **deploy** a compound skill, on the other hand, requires in addition some knowledge and understanding of context. (In our example, for instance, the knowledge of such things as the highway code and road-signs, and the understanding of concepts such as "defensive driving".)

29. We would not wish to imply that learners will always progress in a linear fashion from simple to complex skills. Attempting the complex skill (eg driving a car) can be what provides the motivation for the subsequent learning of simpler component skills. Conversely, the acquisition of simple skills can give simultaneous insights into the work of a craftsman or expert, which can be important in giving direction and motivation to the learner.

SKILLS AND EMOTIONS

30. It is worth distinguishing two senses in which the acquisition of a skill is connected with certain emotional responses.

(a) Motivation — the degree to which an individual has a positive, neutral or negative emotional reaction to the acquisition of the skill. For example, a person may be pleased to learn to drive a car, may be prepared to learn to cook if necessary, but may react against the prospect of learning to speak more clearly

(b) "Blockage" — the degree to which an inability to perform a given "skill" satisfactorily may depend upon an emotional response rather than upon a lack of technique. For example, an individual may find it difficult to ask directions when lost in a strange city, not because of a lack of technique or of language ability, but because of an emotional response to strangers, or because of having a particular kind of "self-image".

31. Although these points are fairly obvious, the reason we summarise them here is that there are influences which can make a tutor too quick to diagnose as the cause of a poor performance the lack of a skill.

One such influence is the fact that, in many cases, tutors will themselves feel more competent in teaching skills than in dealing with the emotional state of the learners.

Another is that the teaching of skills appears, to some people, to avoid the need for the involvement of tutors in the admittedly complex world of value judgements. We would question this position on two grounds:

(a) In so far as anything has been selected for inclusion in a scheme, it must be the expression of a value, in the sense that it has been chosen in preference to other items

(b) It is evident that some skills are more overtly "value-laden" than others. Take, for instance, "being tactful" as opposed to "being able to add up". There will be social and regional differences in the interpretation of the former but general agreement as to what is meant by the latter.

32. Although we have argued that more than the aquisition of a skill or technique is involved in being able to perform competently, we hope it is clear that we still regard improvement of performance (as opposed to knowledge or understanding for its own sake) as being the essential aim of SLS development.

Categorising the Check-list

33. The reason for including the preceding discussion on the use of the word "skill", and the reason for attempting to categorise objectives or check-list items into types at all, is that it is necessary to distinguish objectives which require different kinds of learning activities or situations.

34. Although this is a considerable oversimplification, we could conclude from the last section that it is worth distinguishing between those objectives or items which are:

(a) mostly concerned with **acting**

(b) mostly concerned with **knowing**

(c) mostly concerned with **feeling**

35. There is, however, another way altogether to categorise types of objective, and one which seems particularly pertinent to SLS development. This is to distinguish **product** from **process** objectives*. We shall, accordingly, call forms of SLS teaching which are oriented towards one rather than the other product and process approaches. Both types share the common aim of developing social and life skills, but in educational terms they interpret the developmental process in very different ways.

36. Product approaches see SLS development as leading to some kind of desirable **end-product**: individuals who know certain facts, have mastered certain specific skills and competences, and (possibly) have acquired certain "appropriate" attitudes and values. Following this form of approach it should be possible to scale learners (within the parameters of any particular SLS provision) according to their knowledge or ignorance, their competence or incompetence, and so forth.

37. Process approaches, on the other hand, are more open-ended. They emphasise continuous development, and the outcome of SLS provision (if outcome is the appropriate term here) is perceived in terms of the development of certain desirable processes and potentialities (eg ways of thinking, acting and feeling) which the learner is able to use for his or her own purposes. Thus, for example, while learners may acquire "knowledge" as a **product**** (ie the results of the thinking of others), "knowing" is a **process,** which involves them in developing their own increasingly useful strategies "for reducing the complexity and the clutter"***. Unlike product competencies, process competencies are never mastered, only improved.

38. The distinction between the two types can be grasped by comparing the following examples:

A. Typical product objectives

The learner should be able to:

(a) Draw up his/her personal weekly budget

(b) Write an acceptable letter of application for a job

(c) Use an A–Z directory to locate an address

(d) Prepare a simple meal

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*By "objective" here we mean both **what** and **how** it is intended the student should learn.

**"Perhaps a very useful product, perhaps a quite inert one — if they do not have the ability to apply it.

***J S Bruner, **The Relevance of Education,** Allen and Unwin, 1972.

(e) Use everyday implements and tools

(f) List the sources of information about local job vacancies

(g) Describe his/her legal rights and duties as an employee/job seeker

(h) Describe a typical management structure in a given industry

(i) Demonstrate a commitment to good timekeeping.

B Typical process objectives

The learner should be able to:

(a) Plan his/her own learning effectively, and evaluate it

(b) Seek information and organise it into frameworks

(c) Get people to do things they would not otherwise do

(d) Evaluate his/her own strengths and weaknesses and relate them to tasks or occupations

(e) See an argument from someone else's point of view

(f) Show a willingness to receive new evidence on an issue.

39. A recent research project has produced some findings which can be used to further illustrate the distinction, and its implications. In the **"A–Z Study"*** the immediate supervisors of young comparatively unskilled workers in a range of firms in two geographical areas were asked to describe the characteristics of their "best" and their "worst" young employees. The researchers then calculated the frequency with which certain descriptions were used. From this it emerged that in one area the most favoured young workers were most often described as "being versatile", next most often as "having initiative", then as "having pride in their job", and so on. The least favoured young workers — the "Z" types — were most often described as "being unable to follow instructions", then as "being bad timekeepers", then as "being unwilling to accept supervision", and so on.
(A chart giving fuller results is reproduced in Appendix II.)

40. What is interesting about this from the tutor's point of view is that it suggests that if one were to design a curriculum to produce an "A" type it would have to include a range of activities designed to encourage the development of certain "process" objectives — having initiative and so on. Whereas if one were to aim at preventing or remedying the development of "Z" type characteristics one would design a curriculum to achieve certain product objectives — the ability to follow instructions and so on. Thus the same evidence could be used to produce two very different curricula, depending on the educational assumptions of the tutors and their expectations with respect to the learners.

41. In moving from discussion of course objectives to course content, it should be borne in mind that although the content of a process-centred course and a product-centred course could be identical, the aims of each course would still be quite different. Thus, the main purpose of a product-centred course might be to inform students about (say) their rights and how to get a job; while a process-centred course might still use the same kind of information but do so in order to help students learn how to inform themselves. The aim in process approaches is always the development of the learning process itself — the content is the **means** of learning rather than the **end.**

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*ITRU Publications SY4. *Ibid.*

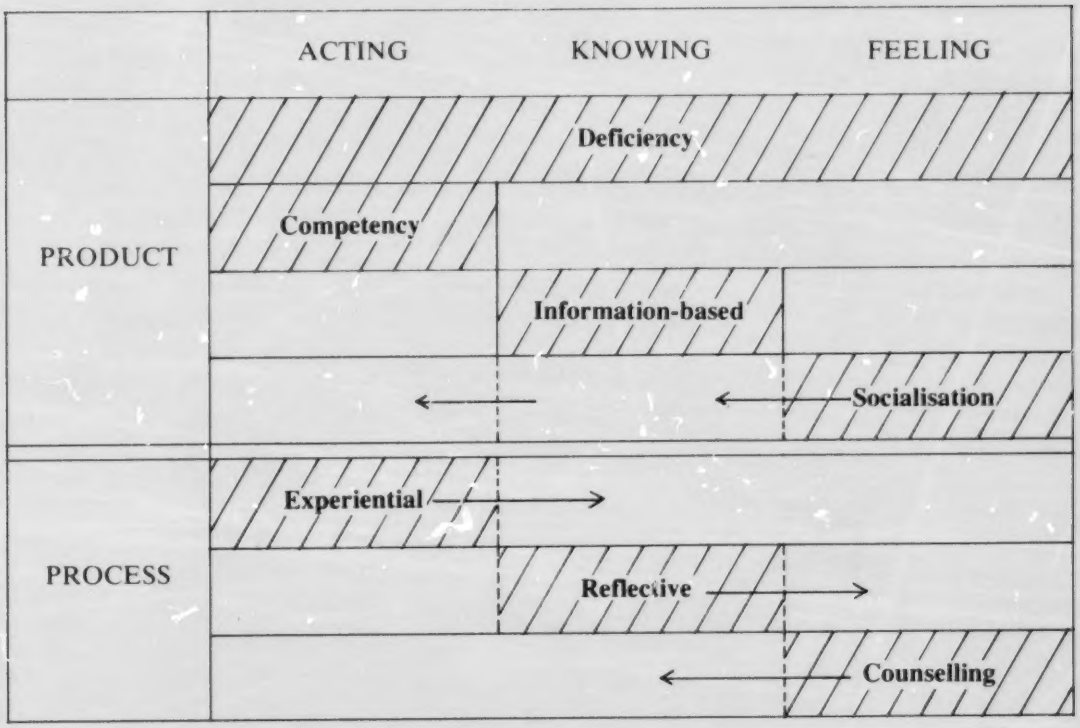
42. We do not wish the reader to infer from the above discussion that process approaches are necessarily superior to product approaches or vice-versa. Clearly there are some facts of life and living and some basic competencies which all of us need to master if we are going to cope with the world and function effectively in it. In addition, considerations of time, or the need to take account of the initial perceptions of learners as to the nature of learning, may mean that a product approach is more appropriate to certain situations (see para 106). On the other hand, it may also be argued that we live in a changing world where some factual information and certain skills and competences can quickly become redundant, whereas the more general and more readily transferable processes of knowing, acting and feeling can continue to have utility.

43. Putting together the discussion about "product" and "process", with the earlier one about "acting", "knowing", and "feeling", we can express the possible approaches to SLS development in the form of a matrix.

	Acting	**Knowing**	**Feeling**
Product	1	2	3
Process	4	5	6

Thus approach (2) would emphasize the possession of knowledge as a product, (4) would emphasize the process of acting, and so on.

44. Any given SLS scheme will probably include more than one approach, of course. However, it is noticeable that schemes do have a tendency to lean towards a particular "model", which is oriented towards, or centred on, one approach as opposed to others. We shall now go on to describe the characteristics of some differing "models" (which cover approaches 1–6 without exactly corresponding to them), and investigate the potential advantages and possible risks of each.



Seven "models" of SLS Development

Models of SLS Development

45. In this section we describe 7 models of SLS teaching. Any real teaching/learning situation is too complex to fit neatly into one of our models, but we have idealised things in this way in order to highlight the respective advantages and risks associated with various approaches to SLS development. In Section 9 we describe how tutors can compare their plans or practice with the models in order to evaluate their schemes.

46. The models are defined in the subsequent pages of this section, but the labels we give them are:

Deficiency Competency Information-based Socialisation	These are all **product** oriented
Experiential Reflective Counselling	These are all **process** oriented

47. Between them they cover all the approaches outlined in our earlier matrix (para. 43), and each — with the exception of the deficiency model — is centred on one approach, even if it includes others. The relationship between them is expressed diagramatically on the opposite page.

48. In the rest of this Section each model is analysed in turn, and its characteristics described. In doing this, we are investigating the issue raised earlier (para 24b) of the differences in **kind** which may exist between items on check-lists. We also indicate the source(s) from which aims are usually derived for each model, as part of our response to another issue, the **derivation** of the check-list (para 24a).

49. For each model we have outlined lists of risks and potential advantages associated with it. We cannot say that one model is better than another in absolute terms. Some risks may be worth running in some circumstances, but not in others. Some potential advantages may not materialise in reality. The issues involved may be of principle or practice — they may lie in the values being expressed in the model, or in its implications for resources and expertise.*

50. Some of the models may be very familiar to some readers. Others will require more explanation. On the top of the page facing each model are given typical quotations which indicate to us that a scheme is following the model concerned. We hope that these will contribute to any further explanation required.

51. All tutors will be well aware of some of the risks and advantages. We have therefore attempted to keep our descriptions succinct. When further clarification or exemplification is required this will usually be found in a note on the facing page.

*For example, a model may embody the principle of the autonomy of the learner, which many tutors would value highly. The same model may require considerable investment in learning materials, which may not be feasible.

NOTES — DEFICIENCY MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Aim . . . re-establishing of confidence and self-esteem through learning of undeveloped skills".

"Many disadvantaged have a complex, interlocking set of inadequate behaviours".

References to Facing Page

(1) E.g. very low reading age; inability to ask questions of adults; extreme lack of co-ordination.

(2) E.g. the individual may underestimate ability to learn, as result of earlier failure, or conversely may fail to recognise certain inabilities. The former appears to be more common. One college reports that the poor self-image of some young people is reflected in their physical posture, their being unwilling to share corridors with more boisterous teenagers, and their unwillingness to talk in the presence of adults or the opposite sex.

(3) E.g. may reject all educational/training institutions, or anyone labelled "teacher".

(4) E.g. may regard lack of skill as a character defect, and therefore not attempt to learn.

(5) Note that quite average young people may be thought to be in need of remedial help by teachers or trainers who have previously only encountered selected groups.

(6) These may be logically necessary requirements, or the historical accident of what has always been assumed.

(7) E.g. a clumsy person may not, as a child, have spent enough time in certain kinds of play.

(8) Moreover, some may object to being grouped with others whose weakness they despise, even if they share it.

(9) And perhaps leading to situations where youngsters are unwilling to leave the sheltered atmosphere of their remedial group.

(10) I.e. to classify a group as "remedial", and to segregate them, will not in itself help them to improve.

(11) E.g. with regard to attitude towards book learning, or use of certain speech patterns.

(12) That is, tutors may regard their aims as being achieved once the norm is reached, even if the student is capable of more progress.

(13) E.g. learners are blamed when, in fact, text books are unnecessarily difficult or teaching methods are inappropriate.

(14) In one college, "disadvantaged" students were given a better staff-student ratio, and a special base-room, which avoided the necessity of much moving about the college, and became their social centre.

(15) Both will often talk in terms of the need for "remedial help" with certain difficulties.

(16) It is often noticeable that "remedial teachers" show more initiative and imagination with regard to methods and strategies than do "ordinary" tutors of only slightly more able groups. This may be because being identified as "remedial teachers" enables them to exchange ideas and offer mutual support.

I. DEFICIENCY MODEL

Characteristics

Assumes certain basic deficiencies in the young people, which need to be remedied before they can make progress on "normal" provision.

Deficiencies could be either:

(i) in basic skills[1] — literacy, numeracy, interpersonal, manipulative

(ii) motivational, as a result of — nature of self-image (poor or inappropriate)[2]
— image held of others (institutions, individuals)[3]
— lack of recognition of needs as **learning** needs[4].

Derivation of Aims

There are two possible sources:

(i) from analysis of deficiencies in comparison
— with successful workers/students[5]
— with norms of average workers/students
— with requirements of the course[6]

(ii) from theory of learning/development (eg that they have missed out on an identifiable "stage")[7]

Risks

(i) There is a danger of treating students as a group, when they have individual and differing problems[8]

(ii) Labelling as "remedial" may lower self-image and others' expectations — focussing on weaknesses as opposed to strengths[9]

(iii) The model may describe problem without solving it[10]

(iv) The idea of the "norm" as an aim may
(a) be an unwarranted value judgement[11]
(b) set an unnecessary ceiling[12]

(v) It may distract attention from inadequacies in "normal" provision[13]

Potential Advantages

(i) "Positive discrimination" may attract more time, teachers, facilities, etc[14]

(ii) Remedying deficiencies may enhance the self-image of the learners

(iii) It offers a service which may be in demand from employers and young people[15]

(iv) It may encourage tutor commitment by developing their "identity"[16]

(v) More specific and limited aims may be more demonstrably achievable, producing remotivation in the learners.

NOTES — COMPETENCY MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Survival and bed-sit cookery".

" . . . be able to select and use correctly appropriate forms for transferring information".

"Using the telephone, correct answering techniques, conveying messages, emergency procedure, good telephone manners".

"The young person shall demonstrate an ability to obtain information from local agencies, and an ability to use the information obtained to reach a decision in a given practical situation".

References to facing page

(1) An important consideration is, of course, the range of tasks that are analysed. A very large range might tend only to give rise to a very generalised description, eg. "communication skills, numeracy, and the ability to solve real life problems". Analysis of a few jobs would give more precise information but increase some of the risks mentioned opposite. In either case, the analysis is a difficult and time consuming business, and more often than not it may have to be "imagined" — for instance, it may be the product of a discussion between interested parties at a planning meeting.

(2) E.g. "ability to avoid provocation", or "decision-making skills".

(3) E.g. an individual may be able to express a point of view clearly, but his ability to do so successfully in differing contexts will depend on a **perception** that different audiences require different styles and assumptions, and on **knowledge** of the background and intentions of a given listener. Thus performance at interview may be improved by being put in the interviewer's shoes, as well as by practice as an interviewee.

(4) E.g. if the ability to read instructions is **not** demanded by most local jobs, should that affect the curriculum? There is also the problem of jobs being designed around assumptions about young people's skills. For example, if they are assumed not to be good at dealing with complaints, their job specification may exclude it, and therefore their curriculum — based on task analysis — will not emphasise it either.

(5) Though activities which are out-dated, or which will soon become so, can be used as **vehicles** for the learning of more generally applicable skills (for example, brick-laying may be used to teach estimating, measurement, care of tools, etc). This may be necessary if these are the skills possessed by the available teachers and with which the young people identify.

(6) E.g. the skills involved in "explaining oneself clearly" will require consolidation and development by practice in a range of contexts. Are other teachers or supervisors at work briefed or willing to give opportunities for such practice?

(7) E.g. although it is only by acquiring certain skills that one becomes a plumber, the role of parent is not similarly defined by the possession of skills. (Though this is not to say that the acquisition of particular skills will not enable the individual to fulfil the role more adequately.)

(8) This can be particularly important advantage where students are used to simply receiving knowledge and having the feeling that they are to be measured against it. Being taught the ability to act more competently in adult situations can revolutionise their attitudes both to the activity of learning and to its purpose.

II COMPETENCY MODEL

Characteristics

Emphasis on "mastery", ie competent performance of specific skills in pre-specified tasks for which agreed criteria of competence can be established.

Derivation of Aims

From task analysis (real or imagined)[1] in or outside the work-place.

Risks

(i) Too many things may be described as if they were simply skills (mislabelling)[2]

(ii) Learning of transferable skills does not in itself ensure the ability to transfer them (knowledge and perceptions may be required for this)[3]

(iii) An analysis of limited tasks may result in a limited curriculum, which may only fit young people for society's current needs[4]

(iv) Since skill requirements change as tasks change, there is a danger of out-dated skills being taught in such a way that adaptability is inhibited[5]

(v) The need for repeated practice may not be adequately allowed for[6], either
   (a) at the work place, or
   (b) in college time

(vi) Many apparent behavioural skills are concerned with success in roles defined in terms of rights and obligations (eg trade unionist, worker, parent). Fulfilling these roles requires complex skills of judgement (which can neither be pre-specified nor fully mastered)[7]

(vii) The need to adopt a 'workshop" approach to teaching makes considerable demands on resources and materials.

Potential Advantages

(i) "Skill acquisition" is attractive to employers and young people because of the possibility of quick results and immediate success.

(ii) Personal development (eg confidence) can come through acquisition of demonstrable abilities

(iii) Relevance is easily demonstrated

(iv) Competence is often readily assessable, by tutors and learners.

(v) The active rather than passive approach may suit student learning styles[8]

(vi) Transferability can be encouraged by identification of generic skills and of the fact that students have learned them.

NOTES — INFORMATION-BASED MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Aim: to give knowledge of organisations in the community".
"Knowledge of Health and Safety at Work Act".
"Where to look for jobs".
"Talk on Trade Unions".
"Taxation, on what it is spent, how it is collected".

References to facing page

(1) E.g. how to obtain sickness benefit.

(2) E.g. that "shop stewards" are union representatives; why vitimin C is necessary; etc.

(3) I.e. what information is needed to cope with situations that arise in these contexts.

(4) I.e. a building site as opposed to the construction industry.

(5) E.g. society assumes knowledge of the law, or of which industries are nationalised; the immediate community may not.

(6) I.e. giving priority to the knowledge which is basic to these disciplines.

(7) E.g. the facts about how to apply for a council house may change with time, and may not apply in other areas.

(8) I.e. the idea that knowledge is possessed by others and received, largely passively, by learners.

(9) Especially true if aims are derived from academic subjects.

(10) E.g. testing the understanding by trainee managers of interviewing techniques by making them write essays on the subject.

(11) Departments are divided by the differences between their respective "knowledge bases" rather than differences in the skills taught, and the physical surroundings are often designed to facilitate transmission of knowledge (lecture theatres, for instance).

(12) If the teacher is bad, you can go straight to the book he is working from, or to specially designed learning packs.

III. INFORMATION-BASED MODEL

Characteristics

Assumes that knowledge, in the form of pre-selected facts, is a necessary and sufficient condition for SLS development. This information may take the form of

— practical knowledge (ie knowing how)[1]
— propositional knowledge (ie knowing that something is the case, or knowing why, when, where)[2]

Derivation of Aims

(i) From situational analysis[3] — of the work place[4]
— of industrial sector[4]
— of the community[5]
— of the society[5]

(ii) from academic subjects[6] — to give grounding in subjects themselves
— to show contribution of subjects to understanding of outside world.

Risks

(i) Knowledge of many facts is likely to be of temporary significance and to be context-bound.[7]

(ii) The model may encourage formal and directive teaching, which may be inappropriate for some students — even for the learning of facts.

(iii) It may confirm students in narrow view of learning, and of their own role in it.[8]

(iv) Other aims (eg skills), or other sources of learning (eg direct experience), may be neglected.[9]

(v) It may encourage the unfounded assumption that performance skills have been acquired once the concomitant knowledge has been learned.[10]

Potential Advantages

(i) Methods of acquiring knowledge are well-known and well-established.

(ii) The content to be taught is easily available to teachers.

(iii) Some factual background is essential to virtually all kinds of learning.

(iv) The value of some forms of know-how and information is not disputed.

(v) Something can be achieved even in a short time.

(vi) The possession, or not, of information is relatively easy to assess.

(vii) The model readily fits into existing college structures.[11]

(viii) It is not teacher-dependent; it reduces reliance on continuity of staffing, the quality of staff or even their existence (there are other sources of knowledge).[12]

NOTES — SOCIALISATION MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Aim . . . to stimulate and motivate a student's atttitude to the use of leisure time and recreational pursuits".

"Objective . . . acceptance of authority".

"Objective . . . realise the importance of basic literacy and numeracy for being a good worker".

"Young people are directed towards the development of responsible attitudes to work and supervision, to the development of initiative, reliability, sociability and co-operation, and to encourage the use of leisure time to good purpose".

References to facing page

(1) Although, in the matrix on page 16, this model is centred under the "feeling" column, we do not mean to imply that the acquisition and change of attitudes and values is entirely, or even largely, a matter of feelings. Nevertheless the connection between this model and the world of feeling is closer than (say) in the case of the two previous models.

(2) E.g. willingness to report faults, or arrive on time.

(3) E.g. if an individual is required to adopt a negative attitude towards office work, or reading, in order to be accepted by his peer group, then informative lectures at college are not going to counteract this effectively. Group discussions in which the attitudes of the whole group are explored and analysed **may** stand a better chance.

(4) E.g. a young worker who is asked a question by an unknown member of management, may well appear "sullen", since he will not know why the question is being asked or what will happen as a result of his answer. Similarly, someone who has not been told where his job fits in with the work of others may well appear to be unco-operative or lacking in initiative.

(5) E.g. "reliable, co-operative, loyal, being willing to learn and take initiative", and so on.

(6) E.g. what is co-operative teamwork in the work place may have been thought of as cheating at school.

(7) Even if some tutors may not be in sympathy with some of the attitudes expected by employers and others, the young people will feel understandably aggrieved if they walk into a situation unaware of these possible demands. Wearing a suit does improve one's chances at many interviews. Young people have a right to know this so that they can decide their future actions.

(8) That is, recognises that there is an emotional aspect to the learning process, and also that emotions and values can affect attainment and performance (see para 30).

(9) Particularly when they are concerned with SLS development, colleges need to be aware of the attitudes and values likely to be "caught" from the educational institution itself. Does it encourage competitiveness? On what criteria are "winners" decided? How are its own decisions reached and implemented?

IV. SOCIALISATION MODEL[1]

Characteristics

Developing specified — attitudes
— values
— willingness to adjust to particular requirements.[2]

Derivation of Aims

From assumed requirements of — world of work
— adult life
— society.

Risks

(i) The model may give rise to accusations of indoctrination.

(ii) There is evidence that educational institutions are relatively ineffective in altering attitudes and values, and that other agencies of socialisation are more influential than colleges.[3]

(iii) Lack of knowledge or skill is often misinterpreted as "faulty" attitude.[4]

(iv) It may uncritically maintain the status quo, and discourage adaptability.

(v) The results may be difficult to assess.

Potential Advantages

(i) Requirements of employers are often described in terms of attitudes of workers.[5]

(ii) The model recognises the possibility of differences between the attitudes which produce success in school and those which do so at work.[6]

(iii) If colleges are to "prepare for adult life", then there is a case for their reflecting the values and requirements of that life.[7]

(iv) It recognises the existence and importance of the "affective dimension".[8]

(v) It recognises that the college environment has a socialising potential, e.g. the effect of the "hidden curriculum", group ethos, work patterns, etc.[9]

(vi) It helps to transmit a culture from one generation to the next.

NOTES — EXPERIENTIAL MODEL

The essence of this approach is best conveyed by the examples given in notes 1–6 below, rather than by quotation from schemes.

References to facing page

(1) E.g. redecorating the homes of pensioners, or other community service.
(2) E.g. organising action in local politics (to move a bus-stop, for instance) or participation in student union affairs.
(3) E.g. setting up a limited company (e.g. "Young Enterprise"), manufacturing canoes, etc.
(4) Can be an objective of any of the other activities mentioned.
(5) E.g. Outward Bound.

(6) E.g. simulated office or workshop, model flats in home economics.

(7) Some practice only emphasises achievement (whether productive, physical or personal). Tutors may neglect to deploy strategies to enable participants — whether individually or in groups — to reflect on **how** things developed and their personal reactions to the events.

(8) E.g. some open-ended projects are chosen by the tutor on the principle that such things as "doing good to those less fortunate", "being exposed to a physical challenge", or "producing something at a profit" are of self-evident value. The learners, or other tutors, may not always agree.
(9) Since activities chosen in this way involve the tutor in predicting what kind of working and social situations the learner needs to be prepared for.

(10) I.e. they are not artificially "broken down" for teaching purposes, and reflect "real life" demands.

(11) Since no analysis is done: the participants discover for themselves the demands a situation makes on them.

(12) Since there is usually room for an individual to carve his or her own path through the experience.

V. EXPERIENTIAL MODEL

Characteristics

Open-ended learner activities incorporating a range of skill and knowledge demands, the opportunities for developing particular capacities not being clearly predetermined.

Derivation of Aims

(i) From *a priori* principles, e.g. — a belief in the value of altruism[1]
— community action[2]
— productive work[3]
— team work[4]
— physical challenge[6].

(ii) From situational analysis — attempting to match likely future activities.[6]

Risks

(i) The activities may be unstructured, therefore they may — omit to make certain demands of learners
— make damaging demands.

(ii) An inadequate emphasis on reflection can lead to neglect of thinking and feeling dimensions.[7]

(iii) Results are not easy to assess.

(iv) Aims derived from *a priori* principles risk emphasising possibly unacceptable ethical standpoints;[8] derivation from situational analysis risks limiting the horizons of learners or fitting learners for pre-determined roles.[9]

(v) Transferability is not guaranteed because transferable skills (etc.) may not be identified to the learner.

Potential Advantages

(i) Activities are holistic and realistic.[10]

(ii) Planning cannot be affected by faulty or inadequate analysis.[11]

(iii) Activities are demonstrably relevant, therefore may be motivating.

(iv) It is unlike most classroom learning.

(v) It provides opportunity for students to play to their strengths and develop their potential.[12]

NOTES — REFLECTIVE MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Areas of study should have an internal logical coherence, and should not be based on casual associations".

"General aim . . . to take students beyond their immediate contexts and equip them with understanding and abilities which will enable them to adapt to change in existing contexts or to those that are new to them".

References to facing page

(1) Cognitive relationships, such as cause and effect, rather than the personal relationships explored in the Counselling model (though there is bound to be some overlap between the models).

(2) For instance, a group (or an individual) might be "reflecting on" a dispute at work between a supervisor and a new recruit. It may well be described only in terms of personalities at first, but the group may benefit from being encouraged to also see it in terms of the **roles** occupied by the disputants. Does the supervisor react that way because that's the way he is all the time, or because of the view he takes of his role during working hours? Does he object to certain behaviour in itself, or because he considers it inappropriate in a new recruit? Can the group generalise from this example to others where an individual's behaviour is affected by the role he or she is in? Are there other ways in which such encounters can usefully be "interpreted"? And so on.

(3) E.g. scientific method, the historian's approach to evidence, comparing the economic and sociological ways of analysing a firm's activities, etc.

(4) That is, they attempt "to make sense of" what might otherwise appear to be random data or catalogues of information. By having the appropriate "way of looking" some people can make sense of a football match, whereas to others it appears to be a confusion of haphazard movement. With other "ways of looking" others make sense of the sky at night, electricity, or a committee meeting.

(5) That is, tutors adopt those insights and principles from the academic world that prove themselves by clarifying the situation for their students — abandoning those which do not show themselves to be useful in this way, however well established they are academically.

(6) E.g. Paul Hirst postulates relatively few "logically distinct forms of knowledge" **(Liberal Education and the Nature of Knowledge,** In: Philosophical Analysis and Education, Routledge and Kegan, 1965) and P H Phenix suggests six "realms of meaning" **(Realms of Meaning,** McGraw-Hill, 1964).

(7) Since the tutor will be encouraging and giving credence to the participants' view of the world, and will adopt an enabling rather than an authoratative role, refusing to "teach" right answers.

(8) That is, in a series of separately timetabled slots.

(9) For instance, a current issue may be taken and analysed from the point of view of an economist, a sociologist, and a political scientist. This can be very interesting, and enlightening with regard to the issue in question. It may, nevertheless, not enable the students to similarly analyse future issues, or even perceive the systematic differences between the disciplines.

(10) Though, since the ability to so operate is what will lead to autonomy and flexibility in the students, every effort should be made to gradually develop these abilities, rather than designing the curriculum to avoid them. One approach is for the tutor to do the reflecting and analysing initially, gradually off-loading more and more of this task on to the students as they develop.

(11) Since differences in perception can be used to advantage, as can the need to explain to others.

(12) E.g. regarding adolescence as a social/psychological as well as a physiological phenomenon.

VI. REFLECTIVE MODEL

Characteristics

Developing in the student the ability to "pattern" experience or data in alternative ways, perceive relationships,[1] make and check generalisations, and develop conceptual frameworks.[2] There are two approaches, personal and academic.

Reflective/personal

(a) Reflection (usually on a group basis) on the direct experience and activities of the participants, aimed at developing their own perceptions of patterns and relationships, and/or at inculcating certain methods of approach to problems.

Reflective/academic

(b) Introducing students to a range of academically recognised and systematic ways of tackling and analysing problems, appreciating experiences, engaging in enquiry, and following up interests.[3]

Both approaches offer "meaning".[4] They may, of course, be combined.

Derivation of aims

(i) Instrumentally — from what patterning or way of looking "works" in a given case. The ways of looking may be completely idiosyncratic or selected from a check-list of academic concepts.[5]

(ii) From basic educational/philosophical principles.[6]

(iii) From conventional subjects.

Risks

(i) Idiosyncratic patterning may hinder transferability to behaviour outside the group.

(ii) The activity can descend into mere chat.

(iii) The model may conflict with the participants' conventional view of the role of "students" and "teachers."[7]

(iv) If presented additively,[8] it risks becoming a series of **subjects,** rather than **ways of looking.**

(v) If integrated around a series of issues, the structure of the "academically acknowledged" ways of knowing may not be apparent to students.[9]

(vi) It may be difficult to demonstrate relevance to students.

(vii) Activity can be teacher- or book-centred, ignoring the needs of students.

(viii) Unrealistic demands may be made on the ability of some learners to communicate and/or work at an abstract level.[10]

(ix) It may neglect "action skills", feelings and emotions.

Potential Advantages

(i) The process gives status to the reactions and experiences of participants and their colleagues.

(ii) It encourages group work, and can cope with and take advantage of a wide variation in background and ability within the group.[11]

(iii) The 'personal' aspect of the model encourages informal methods and can be conducted outside the classroom.

(iv) It can develop motivation because of working from learners' direct experience, and by offering an immediate demonstration of the utility of conceptual frameworks.

(v) The model gives an introduction to the intellectual tradition.

(vi) It introduces students to new or alternative ways of looking at the world.[12]

(vii) Learners are given access to alternative meanings, not just facts, which can lead to intellectual autonomy (and power?).

(viii) The acquisition of general judgemental skills or a "critical understanding" may be encouraged.

NOTES — COUNSELLING MODEL

Typical quotations from schemes

"Self-awareness and an awareness of their own projected image."

"Assess the type of work the young people want to do and evaluate that for which they are best suited".

"To assist young people in developing relationships with each other . . ."

"Use will be made of group work and encounter groups".

"To help young people understand more about relationships, the effect they have on people and the effects other people have on their lives".

References to facing page

(1) This model refers to counselling as a general teaching activity, rather than the specialist help or support an individual may require to deal with a particular personal or emotional problem. The model is concerned with reflecting on such things as the learners' feelings about being at work, or having to decide on a course. These are not necessarily "problems". Even so, the activity can be undertaken at various levels of sophistication, some of which may increase the risks, advantages and demands on tutor expertise.

(2) E.g. in a role-play, or structured simulation.

(3) E.g. obtained through viewing a film or reading a short story.

(4) That is, it might defuse situations that should explode — cause young people to perceive as a problem for them a situation which they should, instead, set out to change. In other words, they may blame themselves when the "fault" lies in their situation. Some people feel an opposite anxiety, namely, that counselling may "unsettle" young people, by fomenting discussion on issues that would otherwise be forgotten or grown out of.

(5) Though, since the ability to so operate is what will lead to autonomy and flexibility in the learners, every effort should be made to gradually develop these abilities, rather than designing the curriculum to avoid them.

(6) Since the tutor will not be providing them with authoritative information or formulae.

(7) Unless the tutor has a framework in which to operate, and strategies for enabling the most fruitful learning situation to be set up.

(8) Which can make some learners unsure as to whether learning is taking place, and enable some tutors to deceive themselves that it is.

(9) That is, attention can be drawn to the individual's experience of feelings within and about the group.

(10) I.e. not being a competent student may derive from a variety of fears and anxieties, as well as, or rather than, lack of "study skills".

VII. COUNSELLING MODEL[1]

Characteristics

Recognition of the existence and importance of the "affective" domain. Individual or group reflection on experiences (real to members of the group, simulated[2], or vicarious[3]) in order to increase the individual's
— understanding and control of his/her own behaviour
— interest in and understanding of the feelings and behaviour of others
— ability to distinguish between emotional and cognitive elements, e.g. in decision-making.

Derivation of Aims

From learning theory, group work theory, or psychotherapy.

Risks

(i) In helping learners contain their difficulties, one may neglect action skills and act as an agency of social control.[4]

(ii) Unrealistic demands may be made on the communication skills of some learners.[5]

(iii) The activity may appear intrusive to some students by asking for personal disclosure.

(iv) The model may conflict with participants' conventional view of role of "students" and "teachers".[6]

(v) It can descend into mere chat.[7]

(vi) It can drift into pseudo group-therapy, or be accused of so doing.

(vii) The group can become exclusive, and inward-looking.

(viii) Results may be difficult to assess.[8]

Potential Advantages

(i) The process gives status to participants' feelings and allows them to be expressed within a stable framework.

(ii) It encourages informal methods and can be conducted in a variety of contexts.

(iii) Motivation may be improved because of working from learner interests.

(iv) Experience within the group itself allows exploration of relationships, within a stable framework.[9]

(v) The model recognises that learning[10] or behavioural difficulties may have an emotional base.

(vi) It helps learners discover personal priorities on which to base learning agendas, etc.

(vii) It extends learners' experience of and sensitivity to emotions, attitudes, reactions.

(viii) The learners' social ease may be increased (and hence their employability).

Selecting Content for SLS Schemes

52. It is possible for schemes to follow the same "model" — the "competency" one for instance — but give priority to quite different content. For example, one scheme might emphasize competency in letter writing, another in first aid. So we shall now discuss the third issue raised at the end of Section 4, namely, how to determine priorities within a check-list. In the course of doing this we also hope to investigate further the question of the origin of the check-list.

53. If we could put forward criteria by which the importance or value of various groups of objectives could be judged, we should have a valuable tool to assist in the selection of "content". It is of course the case that alternative sets of criteria can be put forward, depending both on the groups of students involved and on the values of those proposing the criteria. It is part of the professional role of teachers to choose and apply such criteria, and in this section we shall describe some possible alternative approaches. For the purpose of the discussion, we shall refer to the value or importance of content or objectives in terms of the degree to which they are thought to be "significant".

CRITERIA FOR SIGNIFICANCE

54. **Who decides?** Many tutors will argue that it is **how** the objectives or the content of the scheme are determined that matters.

55. Some would say that the decision as to what is to be covered should be entirely in the hands of the learners, and that the tutor's role is an enabling one: to "hold the ring" whilst the decisions are made, possibly to help the learners to express and identify their wishes, and otherwise to do what he or she can to ensure that decisions are acted upon. This argument is put forward not as a tactical ploy, but because it is thought to represent the essence of SLS development. One can certainly see the force of the argument in some contexts. "There is something odd about 'teaching' decision-making, for example, in class rooms where people cannot decide to walk out if it is no use to them".*

56. Tutors who consider "process" objectives to be the most important are particularly likely to adopt this student-centred stance, with regard to the choice of the subject matter if not of objectives. This is because, for them, subject matter is merely the vehicle by which the process objectives are to be achieved, and the vehicle may as well be one which is most attractive to the students.

57. Other tutors would claim that it is their professional duty to decide on what should be covered in the scheme. Some would indeed take the position that, to be fully professional about it, the decision should be taken by a team of tutors representing a cross-section of experience and expertise. (This does not necessarily mean that the team also implements the curriculum.)

58. Between these two positions are tutors who would take a negotiating role. They have views on what is most important, and express them, but will act only on what they can persuade the students to accept. Conversely, they are themselves open to persuasion.

59. These are not three distinct positions. In fact, one could represent the various views as positions on a spectrum, in which content is determined by:

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*Christine Butterworth, **Is there life after social skills?** Actions magazine July 1979

(a)		(b)		(c)
Student demands	⟷	Negotiation between student and tutor	⟷	Tutor or team of tutors

60. **Criteria for the decision.** For those who accept some degree of tutor determination of content, there remains the question of the basis on which such decisions are to be made.

61. As several of the models show, the spectrum here ranges from those who would use a (real or imagined) analysis of the students' situations, giving priority to the skills and knowledge most in demand there, to those who would give priority to the skills and knowledge basic to the social sciences. In between are tutors who would try to achieve academically recognised objectives through a treatment of the students' current or predicted situation. This too can be represented on a spectrum:

(a)		(b)		(c)
Situation as **determinant**	⟷	Situation as a **vehicle**	⟷	Traditional academic values
←				→

62. There are difficulties associated with situational analysis, as many of the models in Section 7 make clear. In particular there are problems associated with selecting present situations to analyse, preparing for future situations, and converting the analysis into a workable curriculum. But while such analysis may not be a complete answer in itself to the determination of content, there is no doubt that knowledge of the demands which are being made or are likely to be made on young people should be a crucial influence on tutors' priorities, and could provide much useful material on which to base learning activities. (See Appendix III A.)

63. Devising SLS content from academic subjects also poses problems. In particular its relevance may not always be apparent to the learner, and academic study of an area does not guarantee practical competence in it. Nevertheless, whilst a good academic grounding in (say) economics does not necessarily equip one to manage one's own budget, some of the principles of economics may be necessary if one is to have a critical understanding of one's position in the community, as well as the ability to "cope" in the short term. (See Reflective model.)

Operational constraints

64. All the preceding discussion in this section has been about the "significance" of what is to be learned. There are also, however, operational constraints to be taken into account, and the tutor therefore has tactical as well as value judgements to make. We can represent the factors involved diagrammatically:

high

↑	↑	↑
Significance	Feasibility	Assessability
↓	↓	↓

low

65. Given a certain amount of time, known facilities and tutor expertise, and estimated learner needs and characteristics, any one set of objectives may be judged on the three dimensions illustrated above. If an objective is highly significant, and is also easily taught

(feasible) and easily measured (assessable), then there is of course no problem. The curriculum should include it.

66. More typically, however, one might be choosing whether to accord priority to

(a) an objective of agreed and high significance the feasibility of which is doubtful, and the degree of attainment of which would be difficult to determine **or**

b) an objective of lesser significance, which can, almost certainly, be measurably achieved in the time available.

67. In the first case, we run the risk of achieving little, whilst using up time and facilities which could have been used to better purpose. Even worse, perhaps, we may convince ourselves that the objective has been achieved, when it has not.

68. In the second case, playing safe may result in offering a mediocre challenge and in under-estimating the capacity of the students, even though they and we are clear about what has been achieved.

69. It is the existence of these operational constraints which make it impossible to state absolutely what objectives or content should be given priority in SLS provision, even for an identified target group. Some schemes have very little time available to them, in which case it **may** be most sensible to give priority to some simple product objectives of immediate utility — since even if other process objectives were thought to be more significant, little progress would be made towards them in the time available. For another group of similar students, where considerably more time is available, the decision might justifiably be taken to aim for rather more difficult, but also more significant, objectives.

70. Many similar professional judgements have to be made by tutors in the course of planning a curriculum. There will not usually be many "right answers" to the questions they face. Once again, judgements need to be made consciously in full knowledge of the factors involved, and need to be kept under subsequent review.

A POSSIBLE POLICY

71. Our own view of the policy to be adopted with regard to the selection of content is as follows.

(a) Student opinion is important, but this is not necessarily incompatible with taking account both of the tutors' views and of the demands of the learners' present or future situation. Given the right experiences, the learners can do their **own** "situational analysis", even if in a limited fashion, and this is in itself a useful learning experience. The same applies to any subsequent "negotiation" which needs to take place between tutor and learner, in the light of the tutor's judgement, or knowledge of practical constraints.

(b) Some matters may **have** to be covered with some young people in order to provide a basis for future progress. Other content will gain its place in a scheme because of its present or immediate future relevance to the learners' particular situations. But while there are almost an infinite number of issues, facts or skills which could be legitimately included in SLS schemes, the processes of acquiring and comprehending them are more limited in number — and are likely to be of longer-term value. Academic disciplines may sometimes help in indicating to tutors which of these processes might be fundamental.

(c) The tutor should guard against uncritically transferring content which was successful with one group to the curriculum of another. Care should also be taken not to lose sight of differing individual needs within a group. The vociferous minority can be as dictatorial and demotivating to the rest as can a blinkered and authoritarian teacher.

(d) Given the age group concerned (16–19) it is likely that vocational relevance will be considered the most important factor by many young people, since having useful work to do is so central to adult status. "Vocational" may have to be interpreted broadly to include work which does not produce economic gain, especially in the light of unemployment. Moreover, no hard line can be drawn between vocational, social and personal relevance, particularly as — in the case of SLS development — experience in one area affects progress in the others.

(e) The tutors' views on content inevitably embody judgements of relative value and use. This should not be disguised, nor should the value judgements be avoided. They should, however, be made knowingly, and preferably on a team basis. In addition they should be kept under review; as we argue in the next section, a team approach can also be helpful in this evaluative process.

72. **In Appendix III we suggest one method by which this policy could be put into practice.** The approach described there provides a framework within which negotiation can take place between the learners and their tutors in a structured way. It also implements the principle advocated earlier in para. 23(c) — namely that the investigation of the learners' previous experience and current learning needs should be the first phase of the SLS curriculum.

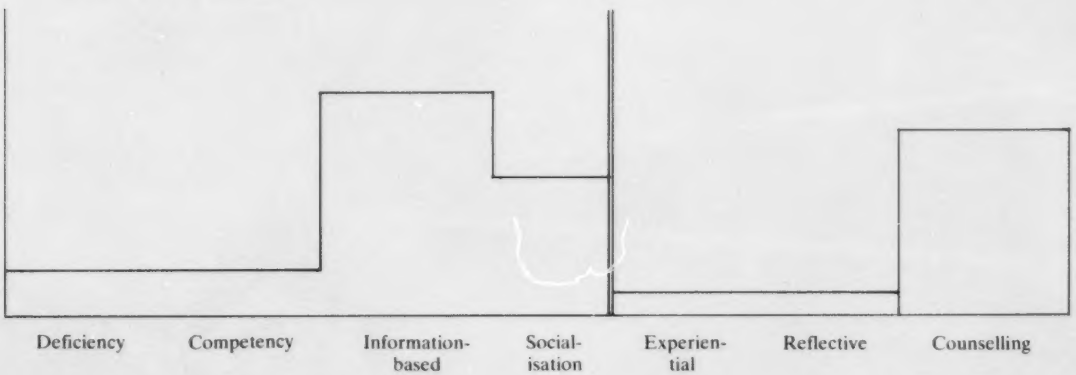
Evaluating Social and Life Skills Provision

73. In section 7, seven idealised models of SLS development were described. The intention was to highlight the basic features of different approaches and to point out the implications, potential advantages and potential risks of each. It should be possible to test any real scheme against the models in order to determine such things as

— the kind of mixture which exists in the scheme
— what is left out, and whether this matters
— what risks are being run, whether they are materialising, and whether they are being ameliorated as much as possible
— whether the potential advantages are actually being realised, and to what extent.

APPLYING THE MODELS

74. One method of testing an existing or proposed scheme* is to prepare a profile of it using the seven models outlined earlier as parameters. For example, a given scheme might be "described" as follows:



The height of the "profile" indicates the degree to which the scheme reflects the characteristics of each model.

75. In order to "profile" a scheme against the models described in Section 7, we found that we needed to know

what is being learned
how it is being learned
why it is being learned
how much attention is being given to it.

No description of a scheme on paper ever gives us all these factors. The aims and objectives of a scheme may tell us what and why (or who they were written for!) but not how or how much. A timetable may indicate how much and what, but not often how and never why.

*Throughout this section, the word "scheme" may refer to specifically labelled SLS provision, or those elements of an integrated scheme which contribute to SLS development, or to the combination of discrete and integrated elements which occurs in many programmes.

76. This is the reason for our being unable to include in this Report a written specification of a scheme together with its "profile". It is also why we regard the **process** of drawing up a "profile" as being a valuable exercise for a course-team. It should provide them with a more complete view of their own scheme than they would otherwise get. Indeed, in some cases this process may be more important than the exact nature of the **product** (i.e. the profile) which results.

Drawing up a profile

77. There are doubtless a number of ways in which this might be done. Appendix III B describes one simple method, which derives the profile from a discussion focussing on the timetable of an SLS scheme (where this is appropriate).*

78. Whatever method is used, information will be needed to answer the four questions mentioned in para 75, and where several tutors are involved in a scheme it is difficult to see how this could be done without a group meeting. We hope that the process by which a profile is arrived at will give tutors a perspective on their work and that of their colleagues which will, through an examination of the risks, advantages and assumptions involved in their approaches**, enable them to evaluate them critically without being destructive. In other words, in addition to the profiling being a device by which to develop and evaluate curricula, we hope it will also serve to establish productive communication within staff teams.

79. As implied above, one use of the profile, once it is obtained, is to check on the balance of risks and advantages as described in para 73. Another approach is to compare profiles obtained in different ways, or obtained from different schemes.

Comparison of profiles

80. We suggest 3 possible contexts in which more than one profile might usefully be drawn up in relation to a single scheme:

(a) to construct a theoretical profile, based on the assumed characteristics of the learners and their needs; to compare this with the profile given by the planned scheme; and to resolve any mismatch. This may result in a re-assessment of the learners, a modification to the scheme, or both.

(b) to have each of the tutors involved in a scheme in various capacities*** (and possibly outside observers) construct a profile of the scheme in question. This is to provide a basis for tutors to compare their perceptions, and to negotiate a consensus view or, alternatively, to reach an appreciation of their differing roles. A variant on this would be for a colleague to participate in a particular learning session, and to compare perceptions with the tutor as to which "models" were being followed (see para 81).

(c) to discuss what profile a scheme should have at different stages. It might be, for instance, that a scheme should start by being product-oriented, but that processes should receive more emphasis as time goes on; or that the profile should be different before work experience, as opposed to during it.

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*In some cases, of course, neither the SLS teaching nor the scheme of which it is part will work to a fixed timetable.

**As described for each model in Section 7.

***In many schemes aspects of SLS development will be the concern of all tutors who meet a given group — inside and outside college. Only some may be specifically designated as SLS "tutors."

81. Comparison and discussion of profiles of different schemes may provide a mechanism by which tutors can more effectively convey to each other the differences and similarities between their schemes. We hope that the models may provide a "language" through which those not involved in a particular scheme can discuss its strengths, weaknesses and function — rather than having to stop short with comments such as "Very interesting, but I would not/do not do it that way."

82. **We should emphasise that what we are offering here is a rough and ready process by which curriculum development, staff development and the creation of effective staff teams might be stimulated. We are not suggesting that there is any one "correct" profile to be aimed at.** More detailed descriptions of how the technique could be used are given in Appendix III.

OTHER ASPECTS OF EVALUATION

83. Although "profiling" can be used to evaluate the planning, progress and implementation of SLS schemes, it is not of course the only means by which the scheme can be evaluated. Evaluation in general is obviously a crucial part of the "experimental" approach to SLS teaching which we are advocating, and it is important to consider how three aspects can be encouraged

— self evaluation
— evaluation by colleagues
— evaluation by the learners.

84. **Self evaluation.** This means more than simply assessing the final attainment of the learners. Such assessment gives useful information about the end result of the teaching, but tells the tutor next to nothing about how or why this end result came about (see paras 85 and 86 below). Nor does it provide evidence as to whether the right objectives were being aimed at. Referring back to the three dimensions mentioned in para 64, we would say that one's teaching could be judged by the degree to which

— the most **significant** objectives were achieved, in respect of the characteristics, aspirations and likely destinations of the students as we now know them

— the judgements about **feasibility** were realistic, including a consideration of whether some of the objectives could more easily be achieved elsewhere or by other people

— the objectives or progress which were **assessed** matched the initial aims of the scheme, and, if not, whether there was an unintentional lack of congruence between them.

85. **Evaluation by colleagues.** In spite of efforts to be objective most of us find it difficult to judge our own work critically, particularly in an educational system which often rewards us for promoting and defending what we do but does not hand out prizes for being self-critical. An objective evaluation of one's teaching is therefore not easy, but objectivity can be enhanced by getting colleagues to sit in on some teaching sessions and to discuss them later as well as by discussing in more general terms the goals and objectives of the course. Apart from providing a more objective appraisal, this is likely to have useful spin-offs. Colleagues may be more sympathetic towards one's aims if they have the chance to see how these aims are acted upon and to discuss and influence the practice (see also paras 80 and 81). This can be particularly important in encouraging colleagues whose main teaching responsibility lies elsewhere to take the best advantage of opportunities for SLS development which may occur in their area. It might in addition lead to the setting up of a curriculum development group within the department or the

college aimed at giving support and advice to individual teachers. Team teaching is also valuable within a new curriculum area such as SLS, and can facilitate unobtrusive observation by colleagues.

86. **Evaluation by the learners.** Feedback from the learners is obviously essential, but again we stress that this does not only involve assessing their performance. It also includes collecting their opinions on what one is doing and why, and on materials and specific learning activities; and even getting the learners involved in the design and the development of the course and in the process of deciding on relevant learning activities. After all, people learn better when they know what they are supposed to be doing and why, and when they feel that they have some control over the learning situation. This is particularly important with respect to SLS development since the hidden curriculum embodied in the social environment will obviously be a major influence on the development of social skills. (See para 55 and Appendix III A.)

87. To sum up then, we would argue that professionalism in SLS tutors requires them to regard the curriculum as a means of testing hypotheses. Tactical and value judgements have to be made, and should be made systematically and with a proper consideration for alternatives. Once made, they should of course be vigorously implemented, but — at the same time — plans should be made to identify and evaluate evidence as to their wisdom and effectiveness.

Issues of Implementation

I. Who should "teach" social and life skills?

88. There are some who argue that most teachers may actually be "disabled" as effective SLS tutors, because of their training and the nature of their previous experience. We can see that this might well be true of teachers who find a flexible "enabling" role difficult, and feel threatened when asked to move away from the subject in which they were trained, in which they "know better", and which it has been their job to transmit. In addition, some teachers, wittingly or unwittingly, are part of an institution whose social rules, formal or informal, are very different from those of the adult world outside its walls (with respect to sources of authority, sanctions, competitiveness, and so on).

89. Although some teachers may not be equipped or willing to work in this field, we would strongly argue that SLS development is an **educational** matter, and that the planning and co-ordination of schemes to promote such development requires — as we hope this report has shown — educational judgements and expertise. At the same time, shop-stewards, supervisors, fellow workers, and other non-teachers, can all be valuable and sometimes irreplaceable resources. Because of who they are, and what they do, they can be of great assistance to a young person's SLS development. We find it very difficult to imagine SLS provision being adequate where the only human resource is teachers.

90. All these people, however, have other jobs. There is a limit to the amount to which they can be expected to modify what they do, and how they do it, for the greater educational benefit of the young people with whom they are in contact. This adaptability can and should be expected of tutors, as should the ability to diagnose learning needs which are not being met.

91. To summarise, we would argue for the involvement of professional educators in the planning and evaluation of schemes, and also in co-ordinating them in order to ensure the most effective use of other human resources (which might include other specialist teachers and trainers, as well as those whose job is not directly concerned with the promotion of learning).

II. Where should SLS development take place?

92. SLS development can and does take place wherever the young person is — at work, at home, in the youth club, at college, etc. The better question is, perhaps, where **should** a scheme be based?

93. There are strong arguments, which we would support, for the developmental value of certain kinds of "real-life" experiences (see the "Experiential" model, Section 7). The two most often mentioned are work experience and a residential period away from home.

94. A residential period can make a unique contribution in its own right, and multiply the effect of the scheme of which it is part. We are worried, though, by the tendency in some schemes to concentrate (or relegate) all SLS to a residential period, however well planned it may be. Although this may provide a very valuable experience, it does not offer the necessary concurrent support to (say) an individual's initial work experience. Nor can it cope with that development of skills or perceptions which requires a more extended period of time to come to fruition.

95. On the other hand, specially planned "work experience" — that is, experience planned with primarily educative rather than productive aims, and therefore not exactly like "real life" — could in some circumstances embody the whole of the SLS content of a scheme. This fully integrated approach is discussed in III below.

96. The most common situation, however, is where a SLS element is provided as a discrete part of a scheme. Whether the element is based in a company office or committee room, a college classroom, a youth club, or anywhere else, it is obvious that — since we are dealing with social development — the social environment matters. It would be difficult to implement the principles we have been outlining in physical surroundings which make social interaction difficult — a lecture theatre, for instance, which has the added problem of implying a certain kind of relationship between "teacher" and "taught". The social atmosphere and rules of the organisation can also have an influence: SLS is not likely to be effective within a college so organised as to remind the young people of earlier unsuccessful experiences of being a learner, or within a company which does not treat its young employees with respect.

97. We are, though, talking only of a "base" in which the group can share experiences, some learning can be consolidated, and any specific deficiencies can be remedied. It does not have to be a perfect environment, and each of the various alternatives has its advantages. The committee room may have an atmosphere of adult seriousness, and may involve the young people in little travel; the Youth Club may be encouragingly informal; the college may give access to a whole range of facilities and expertise, if required. Also, of course, the tutor does not have to be from the organisation where the scheme is based.

III. Should SLS be integrated, or separately timetabled?

98. As was indicated in II above, SLS development could be integrated into the rest of the programme (whether this is work experience or a course) so that no separate "teaching" of it occurs. This would, of course, involve the programme being organised so as to provide a range of appropriate experiences within it. It is easiest to imagine this happening in the case of work experience, where it could be "run on a basis that involves trainees in tasks and decisions at all levels, not just in the production process, but in running health and safety committees, deciding on products and marketing, running their own disciplinary system, and so on".*

99. The difficulty here lies in ensuring that SLS development really does take place, and does not gradually disappear because it is not the primary interest of any tutor or supervisor. Other objectives may be given priority, even though the learner activities have potential for their SLS development. A possible solution is to give a specified tutor the responsibility for co-ordinating (rather than teaching) SLS, and having an agreed check-list with which to monitor the progress of individuals and the programme as a whole. Such an integrated approach certainly avoids the danger of SLS becoming "just another lesson".

100. The advantage of a separate timetable slot is that it is administratively simpler, that it automatically results in a tutor being given responsibility for SLS, and that it gives him or her a basis for developing special materials and techniques. Nevertheless, an SLS "slot" in a course which was otherwise organised and taught on very different lines and with a very different ethos might be of very little use, however well done.

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*Christine Butterworth, *Ibid.*

101. A useful compromise can often be reached in which a "slot" is provided, but is used to consolidate and complement the rest of the programme, which is itself so organised as to enhance SLS development. Thus specific experiences or input would only be provided in the SLS slot where it was needed in order to promote learning not provided for elsewhere, or occasionally where the learning could be more efficient for being specially organised.

IV. Should there be specialist SLS teachers?

102. As will be apparent, we think that many people — teachers and non-teachers — can and should contribute to SLS, but that there remains the need for a tutor to maintain an overview of the SLS curriculum and its implementation, to co-ordinate the work of others, and to ensure that there is a consensus about aims. "Profiling", as described in Section 9, could help develop and maintain this consensus. The SLS tutor would be responsible for "filling gaps" in provision, but not for providing it all or even claiming competence at all aspects of it.

V. What is the relationship of SLS to work experience?

103. As was implied earlier, work experience is a crucial part of the SLS development of 16–19s, and where it is not present, an important function of SLS provision may be to provide it. Certainly, we would view with anxiety a situation where the curriculum was the same for young people who had not yet had work experience as it was for those concurrently receiving it. Work experience may be broadly defined. It would include any activity in which the young people have to work in an interdependent manner with others in the performance of a set task under realistic constraints of time and quality.

VI. Is SLS for groups or individuals?

104. Much SLS work is best organised as a group activity, since alternative perceptions and the discussion of others' experiences can be very valuable. We must not, however, lose sight of individual differences, or see SLS as a common syllabus to be got through. Individuals will need to learn and experience different things at different times, and the organisational and resource implications of this should be allowed for.

VII. How can transferability of learning be encouraged?

105. In many ways, transferability is of the essence. If an individual cannot apply an ability learned in one context to another in which it is appropriate, then he or she does not have "Social and Life Skills". This means that the applicability of any "product" learning to other contexts must always be emphasised, and practice given in a variety of contexts. Also, the appropriate "processes" must be taught, in order that suitable contexts may be recognised and the necessary development and adaptation of techniques take place.

VIII. The length of schemes

106. Time, of course, is one of the most crucial operational constraints, with respect to both the amount available and its distribution. We have said earlier (para. 42) that where time is very limited, it **may** be justifiable to concentrate on limited "product" objectives which are immediately necessary and can be achieved quickly. Nevertheless, this could

perhaps be done in such a way as to lay the foundation for future development of "process" abilities. Also, what is given priority in a short scheme may not have the same status in a longer one, where more ambitious aims may be set, and the feasibility of certain objectives will vary depending on whether the time specifically available for SLS is, say, distributed throughout a year or "blocked" into a shorter time-span.

IX. SLS modules

107. Much current provision is provided in a situation where students may join a scheme at any time, and leave whenever a job becomes available or a more suitable course is identified. In these circumstances, and some others, it can be helpful logistically to organise SLS into short "modules" which may be taken in any order. This is surely sensible, but runs the risk of only limited product objectives being aimed at, since more ambitious ones (whether product or process) would require more time and would need to be approached in a given sequence. An important tactical decision to be made by tutors is, therefore, the optimum length of modules, so as to combine flexibility with worthwhileness. An alternative is only to "modularise" those activities which have to take place in groups, and to provide opportunities for individual and different activities at other times.

Summary and Conclusions

108. This report has been concerned with provision in Further Education Colleges which is aimed at developing and encouraging the capacity of young people to manage their everyday affairs successfully.

109. We think that there are two good reasons why this kind of provision has received increased attention of late. These are:

— the realisation that some young people are, relatively, deprived of the range of post-school experience which would fully develop this capacity. Unemployed school leavers, for instance, may miss out on the social experience both of work and of college.
— the realisation that, even when the range of adult social experience available is ample, the individual's ability and willingness to learn from it, and thus to make a successful transition to adulthood in his or her own terms, is much enhanced by the right kind of support.

110. For a variety of reasons, the provision with which we are concerned is most commonly referred to as "Social and Life Skills training". We think this label is useful in so far as it implies active learning with the aim of being able to perform everyday activities more competently. We think it could be misleading in so far as it suggests that being trained in certain skills is all that is required for this. We have discussed this issue in Section 5.

111. Another danger, in having any label at all, is that what we consider may most usefully be regarded as an aspect of personal development may come to be thought of as a "subject". This might in turn lead to "subject teachers", to endless and fruitless debate about what the "essence" of the subject is, and to young people being offered another "lesson" at which to succeed or fail — instead of being offered support in achieving their adult aspirations.

112. We consider it reasonable to assume that for most 16–19 year olds many of these aspirations will be bound up with being a worker. Specific jobs may be disappointing or even unavailable, but a desire for financial independence, for status in the community, and for the broader general experience that work brings, is naturally central to young people's perception of their world at this stage. This is not to say that the world of work should be romanticised, that young people should be conditioned to accept its requirements uncritically, that the prospect of unemployment should not be faced honestly, or that only specifically vocational aspirations should be provided for. But young people should be aware of what work is likely to demand of them, and be equipped to respond if they wish to. Moreover, the best SLS schemes clearly demonstrate how much personal development can be promoted through a young person's vocational interests, and conversely, how development of personal interests can contribute to his or her vocational potential.

113. We believe that any SLS scheme must be a participatory experience for the young people. It would be a contradiction in terms if it were not, since we are hoping to promote self-sufficiency and self-reliance. Also, since it is not a subject to "pass", but rather a form of support provided at the start of a lifetime of adult experience, it follows that autonomy in learning, rather than dependence on tutors, must be developed. Tutors must not, therefore, fall into the trap of getting fixed ideas about what SLS is, and always knowing better than the young people what their needs are.

114. Nevertheless, we believe that young people should not be left simply "to learn from experience", and we also recognise that the range and quality of the experience to which

they have access may not always be adequate. Therefore the involvement of tutors is important. These tutors need to work on assumptions about the value of specified learning activities, the appropriateness of content and materials, the likely demands on human and physical resources, and so on. A balance has to be struck between the need for adequate planning (including the development of tutor skills and materials, and the making of clear and well-founded judgements) and the need to keep this planning under review, to avoid rigidity and be sure of making any necessary changes.
In other words, the curriculum has to be a carefully thought out and monitored "hypothesis", and the tutor has to adopt the role of "experimenter" with regard to it.

115. The speed with which many schemes have to be designed and implemented, and the pressure (including emotional pressure) under which tutors have to operate, makes all this a lot easier said than done. This is particularly true where tutors are also involved in other kinds of teaching during their working week. It is beyond our capacity to provide time, sample materials or physical resources, and for reasons of principle we do not feel able to prescribe details of a universally ideal scheme.

116. What we **have** done is to describe the characteristics, risks and advantages of a series of "model" approaches (Section 7). We hope that discussions of these models, and the analysis of planned or existing curricula in terms of them, will develop tutors' perceptions of the basis and implications of certain choices, assist in the methodical and thoughtful development of curricula (or "hypotheses"), enable constructive evaluation (or "testing"), and encourage, where necessary, the re-designing of schemes.

117. We cannot, then, offer a ready-made product. Instead we offer a process which we hope will lead to appropriately designed and implemented products in local circumstances. We trust our process is a useful one — but this is in itself a hypothesis which requires testing. We hope that tutors will at least feel that it is **worth** testing, and we look forward to their evaluation reports.

I **Social and Life Skills Materials**

II **Differences between improvers and non-improvers among young unskilled workers,**
an extract from the "A–Z Study".

III **Stages in planning and profiling SLS schemes**
— a possible approach

Social and Life Skills Materials

This list is based on one prepared by Christine Butterworth, co-ordinator of the Educational Disadvantage Unit at Garnett College, Roehampton Lane, London SW15. The titles marked* are at present out of print, but are included here because they are usually available in college libraries. Copies of all these materials are also kept in the EDU resources bank at Garnett College. The National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling has a similar resources bank at Bayfordbury Annexe, Hatfield Polytechnic, Hatfield, Herts. Resource materials may also be inspected at the National Youth Bureau, Leicester. (See item A.3)

A. Training materials for adults — supervisors, tutors, youth workers, etc.

1. Working with young people*

Background and discussion notes written by Guy Dauncey, to accompany the BBC TV series of the same name, produced by Ian Woolf with Sally Kirkwood.
Sections on:
— relationships with young people;
— learning and training;
— counselling;
— organisation and leadership.
Very readable book aimed at a wide range of adults. Assumes no previous experience but useful at many levels. Could serve as a DIY guide to training yourself and those you work with. Emphasis is laid on putting the Experience — Reflection — Learning model into practice, and building the 'personal development' aspect in to other areas of work; ideas on problem-solving exercises, games, etc.

2. 'Just the Job' Counsellors Handbook

Compiled and written by Guy Dauncey for volunteer counsellors in 'Just the Job' project.
Sections on:
— how to use the 'Just the Job' Job-hunter kit (see below);
— information about YOP;
— information necessary for adults giving advice;
— list of further resources.
Written for volunteers, so again accessible. Although the information is related to the South-West, where this scheme was started, the book provides a useful model that could be adapted for your own area.

Obtainable from: The National Extension College, 131 Hills Road, Cambridge.

3. YOP — Information and Resource Pack

Produced by the National Youth Bureau's Youth Opportunities Development Unit. Contains:
— useful lists of Radio/TV programmes, educational materials, etc;
— Lists of Resources and Information Sheets on: social education and social and life skills, games and simulations, youth employment, MSC, YOP staff training, etc.

Obtainable from: National Youth Bureau, Youth Opportunities Development Unit, 17–23 Albion Street, Leicester LE1 6GD.

4. Teaching Life and Social Skills

Produced by the Association for Liberal Education. Offers a plan for setting up social and life skills programmes, beginning with a diagnosis of the needs of your group, devising activities for them. Recommends teaching methods, and the most useful sections explain how these methods work:
— task-centred groups;
— role-play and simulation;
— problem-solving exercises
— case-histories, etc.

Complemented by a list of materials, resource agencies and addresses. Another useful idea is the suggestion and outline for an assessment profile — for completion by the student/trainee and the adults in charge. Obtainable from: NEC (see 2 above)

5. 16–19 year old Education Pack*

Produced by the National Union of Students. General introductory paper on extending 16–19 education, and separate information leaflets on:
— youth unemployment;
— YOPs Students Charter;
— Grants for 16–19s;
— Community Links:
— TUC and YOP, a check list to assess scheme quality;
— multi-cultural education.
Useful, though primarily aimed at those familiar with the education sector. Contains some things not found in the other materials.

6. The Implications of Youth Unemployment for Careers Education in schools. A G Watts (Journal of Curriculum Studies Vol. 10 No. 3 September 1978).

This article gives a clear-cut account of various analyses of youth unemployment and explores various implications of these for teachers working with school-leavers or the young unemployed. Discusses problems in selecting activities, and offers a list of curricular objectives. Particularly useful as adult training material in that it directly addresses the problem of how adults have to face up to their own social and political values when considering their aims for their young people.

7. Games and Simulations in Action — Alec Davison and Peter Gordon.

Alec Davison is Director of the Cockpit Theatre in London, and this immensely useful book is a manual for teachers, youth leaders, group-work organisers and others on how to use games, role-play, etc. in workshop sessions and social education programmes. Includes complete set of simulations, from brief warm-up exercises to full scale simulations. Ideas and instructions on how to devise and run your own to suit your particular needs, including one for teacher training that could easily be adapted as a training exercise for any group of adults.

Published 1978 by the Woburn Press, 11 Gainsborough Road, London E11 1RS.

8. Racial Harmony Information Pack

Produced jointly by the British Youth Council and the Commission for Racial Equality. Notes for youth leaders and others. Lists of addresses, materials, etc. and fact sheets for leading discussions on:
— employment;
— housing;
— immigration;
— 'sus' laws;
— education;
— National Front and other racist organisations.
Useful as a resource for training, the sheets have the advantage of complex information presented in an easily digestible form, all on issues that have to be faced by adults working with the unemployed, since both recent and second-generation immigrants are over-represented in the unemployment figures, and race is an issue in every work place, as well as at national political level.

Obtainable from: British Youth Council, 57 Chalton Street, London NW1 1HU.

9. Life Skills Training Manual

Compiled by Jane Ellis and Tim Barnes. Training manual for workers on Springboard schemes for the unemployed.
Sections include:
— personal needs;
— family and community;
— leisure and job;
— plus techniques for trainers and resource material.

Obtainable from: CSV, 237 Pentonville Road, London N1.

10. Social Skills and Personal Problem Solving

By P. Priestly, J. McGuire, et al. A useful compilation of methods and techniques from many sources. Develops a framework applicable to a range of contexts. Groups methods into four stages of: assessment; setting objectives; learning procedures; evaluation. Includes specimen programmes.

Published by Tavistock, 1978.

11. In Whose Interests?

"From Social Education to Social and Life Skills Training" by Bernard Davies. (National Youth Bureau, Occasional Paper 19 August 1979.) Wide-ranging policy paper that charts what has been, in the author's view, the decline of the 'person-centred', 'developmental' youth work approach to social education in the face of the spread of 'social and life skills training', whose goals are frequently societally-directed and manipulative. Bernard Davies argues that there is a need to reassert a distinctive theory of social education that takes into account the problems facing school leavers in the 1980s as deskilling and structural unemployment take their toll, and offers suggestions as to what such a theory should include.

12. The CRAMP Approach to the Teaching of Social and Life Skills

An early and influential booklet, produced by ITRU. It is concerned to draw an analogy between the methods by which mechanical skills are taught in industrial training, and the methods for teaching interpersonal skills. CRAMP is a taxonomy of different kinds of learning: Comprehension; Reflex learning; Attitude development; Memorisation; Procedural learning. The types of training available to deal with these areas are reviewed.

Published by the Industrial Training Research Unit Ltd., Research Paper 7, February 1976.

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13. The A–Z Study

An Industrial Training Research Unit survey looking at school-leavers going into a range of unskilled jobs. Supervisors were asked to describe the differences between their best and their worst 'starters', and the incidents they described to illustrate their answers (many of which are included in the study) focussed more on personal attributes than on job skills. The survey results are compiled as a list of these qualities. The report finishes with suggestions for a number of training exercises that could be used in on or off-the-job training and in social and life skills programmes.

ITRU Publication SY4.

14. Instructional Guide to Social and Life Skills

The guide is a 'working document' produced by the MSC and intended to be particularly relevant to those running schemes under what was then the Commission's Work Experience Programme. It draws together some of the work which has been done to identify the life skills which feature predominantly in working life, and explains some ways in which these skills might be appreciated and adopted by young people undergoing formal courses of training.

Available free from MSC , Selkirk House, 166 High Holborn, London, WC1V 6PF.

15. Making Experience Work

Produced by the Profile Task Group of MSC.
Summarises working principles for YOP scheme organisers. Brief but comprehensive, it is a useful checklist of do's and don'ts for scheme staff that emphasises that it is the experience of being on a scheme, i.e. what you do, how you're treated and how you treat others, that is the core of the learning that goes on.

Obtainable free from MSC.

16. Experience Reflection Learning

Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit.
Written for organisers of schemes of Unified Vocational Preparation, but describes an approach to learning relevant to tutors operating in a wide range of contexts, and intended to cope with learning which takes place in and out of classrooms. It proposes a process by which curricula can be developed, and discusses various issues which arise when putting schemes into practice.

Available free from the FEU, Elizabeth House, Rm.5/81, York Road, London, SE1 7PH.

17. Supporting YOP

Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit.
Contains advice for staff in colleges who are offering elements of the Youth Opportunities Programme.
It describes the various ways in which FE colleges can contribute to the different components of the YOP, and also has sections on:
integrated provision; guidance and counselling; educational consultancy; and staff development.

Available free from FEU.

18. A Basis for Choice

Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit.
Concerned with full-time pre-employment courses, it suggests a common core for them, which is described in terms of performance objectives and learning experiences, and which may be of interest to SLS tutors.

Available free from FEU.

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B. Materials for use with students and trainees

Political Education

1. Working for Change

Political education pack from the British Youth Council. Information on how to use the material, set up a project, etc.
Lists of games, films:
— community politics simulation;
— how to get involved in local politics;
— using newspapers on a local campaign;
— posters, including one on local government organisation.

Obtainable from: BYC, 57 Charlton Street, London NW1 1HU.

2. Political Literacy in F.E.

A report from the Hansard Society by Robert Stradling. The full report is as yet unpublished, but discussion papers and the following teaching packs are available:

— politics and the economy;
— the politics of the media;
— community politics;
— political dilemmas.

Each pack contains lesson plans, learning materials and a commentary, which together make up a self-contained "module".

Obtainable from Hansard Society, 16 Gower Street, London WC1E 6DP

3. Local Government

One of the 'School and Community' Packs produced by Community Service Volunteers. Includes folders on:
— local government structure, how the re-organisation worked;
— housing, social services, education, transport, environment, leisure and community groups.
Includes a workbook for completion that could form part of a project; 'Action Sheets' on all the topics, with questions to form the basis of surveys — eg. Old People's Welfare Survey, Wheelchair Survey, education projects. Combines an immense amount of information that would take weeks of research to discover, with ideas for follow-up action that could be immensely productive.

Obtainable from: CSV, 237 Pentonville Road, London N1 9NJ.

Social Education

4. No Bed No Job

CSV Teaching pack on homelessness amongst young people. Includes teacher's notes, and a simulation game.
Topics covered include:
— jobs and social security;
— information on tenancy rights, finding accommodation, wages, claiming benefits;
— comic-strip sequences (on duplicating masters), as stimulus material for discussions about events that can lead to a young person leaving home.

Obtainable from: see above.

5. Planning Your Environment

Another CSV Pack, organised around the theme of 'Your city has been kidnapped'. Includes material on:
— local politics: grass roots action and how to do it;
— getting to know your town, town trails, what is wrong/right with it;
— community action, newspapers, etc; improving your neighbourhood — surveys, community gardens, murals, etc.;
— ecology of the city — pollution, waste.
Colleges and YOP schemes are part of local communities; the ideas in this pack could lead to useful co-operation between the two.

Obtainable from: see above.

6. Individual and Society*

Social education workpack, published by Heinemann. Discussion and reading sheets on various topics, including:
— why do we need laws? How are laws enforced?;
— how free are you? Rules and regulations, how can you change the rules?;
— individual privacy, what makes an individual?;
— human groups, families, marriage, etc.

Teachers notes also available from: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd, 48 Charles Street, London, W1 8AH.

Careers Education

7. Making a Living

This is described as a set of detailed self-training exercises for school-leavers and young adults. Could be used independently, or as the basis for group sessions.
Attractively presented booklets on:
— applications and interviews;
— how to find vacancies;
— starting and keeping a job;
— unemployment and retraining.

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8. Working in a City

A pack (written for FE students and school-leavers) of worksheet exercises giving information about work-related topics and practice in communication skills. Includes relevant numeracy work.
Topics include:
— health and safety at work;
— budgeting and managing wage packets;
— where your tax goes, etc;
— job-search and job application exercises.

9. Living in a City

A pack of workshop exercises to be used as communication skills materials related to topics included in 'life skills' area, for example:
— using public transport;
— coping with forms;
— reporting accidents, etc.
Note: All three of the packs above have been compiled from work done in the ILEA by teachers and lecturers, and although some sheets are related directly to London, all are good models that could easily be adapted.

Obtainable from: ILEA Learning Materials Service, Publishing Centre, Highbury Station Road, London N1 1SB.

10. Job-Hunter Kit

National Extension College Pack. Booklets to be used as basis for group sessions on:
— why unemployment?;
— getting organised (job-search, claiming benefit, etc);
— YOP and how it works;
— FE and training;
— make unemployment work;
— doing your own thing (alternatives to unemployment).

The Counsellor's Handbook (see above) was written to be used with these exercises, and for every session, the booklet offers several suggestions for follow-up action.

Obtainable from: National Extension College, see above.

11. Exercises in Personal and Career Development

By B Hopson and P Hough. A very useful source-book, much used in careers education. Comprehensive introduction on the aims of participatory methods with groups, and many suggestions for role-plays, games and simulations, not only about careers and work, but in developing individual self-assessment and group interaction.

Published by: CRAC (Careers Research Advisory Council), Bateman Street, Cambridge.

12. Job-Search Pack

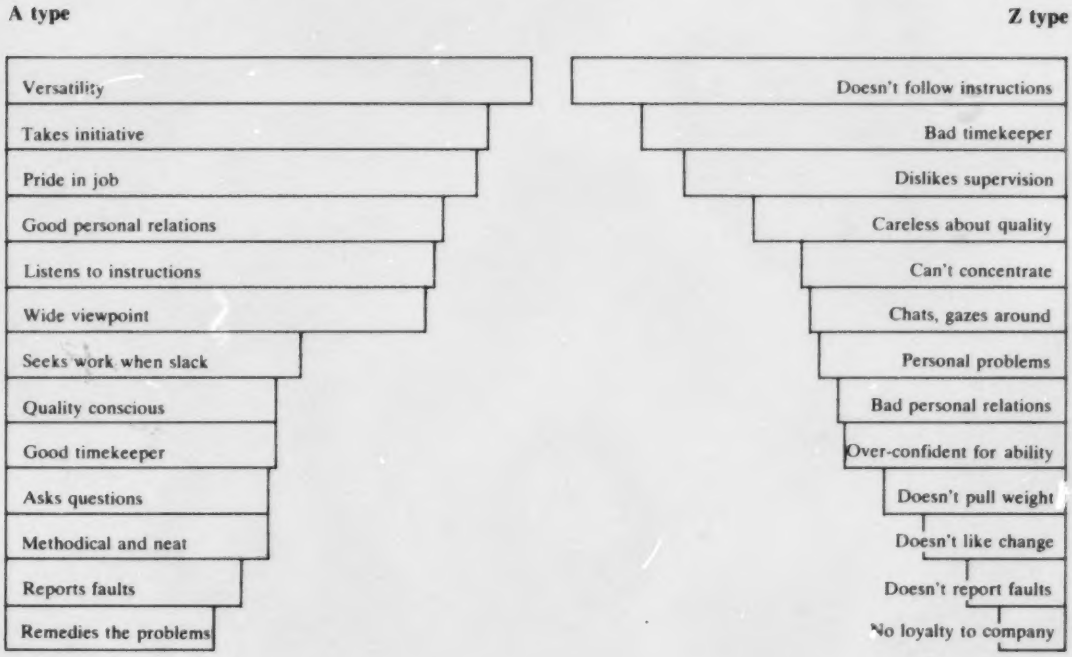
Trial materials in the Schools Council Careers Education and Guidance Pack.
This series of leaflets is designed to be used with small groups of unemployed school-leavers, as discussion stimulus material and as an aid in developing a group identity in order to facilitate group counselling. Topics covered include:
— alternative job search methods;
— self-employment;
— attitudes to the unemployed;
— alternative ways of coping with unemployment.

No decision on publication has yet been taken by the Schools Council. Sample packs are kept in the Resources Centre at: Bayfordbury Annexe, Hatfield Polytechnic, Hatfield, Herts.

Differences Between Improvers and Non-Improvers among Young Unskilled Workers

An extract from the "A–Z Study", ITRU Publication SY4.

Weighted Importance of Factors Mentioned by Supervisors in East Anglia



The "A types" were those young people who were, in the eyes of their supervisors, the best recruits to the firm concerned — the "improvers". The "Z types", therefore, were the least favoured young recruits — the "non-improvers".

The study contains case-study material illustrating what the supervisors meant by the factors listed.

Stages in Planning and Profiling SLS Schemes — a Possible Approach

INTRODUCTION

Some readers may have initially expected to find, in the main part of this report, a description of suggested content for an SLS scheme. In Section 4, however, we argued that "SLS refers to an area of learning or aspects of an individuals development rather than a subject, course or further education programme," and it follows from this that SLS is not a single entity the content of which can be defined.

We hope that it is also clear from the report that we believe:

(a) that SLS development is concerned with enabling an individual to **perform** competently, in adult and working life

(b) that more than technique or skills is required for adequate performance. Understanding, knowledge and certain attitudinal stances (being confident, enquiring, co-operative, or whatever) are also needed.

In other words, SLS schemes cannot neglect certain forms of knowing (for instance) but knowledge is valuable in so far as it contributes to an individual's ability to **act,** rather than as a primary end in itself. Furthermore, what is to be learned in order to produce competence at a given task may vary from person to person.

So why do we not at least provide a check list of tasks? The reason for this is that a list encompassing all those tasks relevant to the range of young people (and their circumstances) in further education would be so large as to be useless. Tutors would still be faced with the need to select from them.

What we **can** do is to outline a process by which one could set about determining the content of a given scheme, and this we do in part A of this appendix. We also show the function in this process of the models described in Section 7.

In part B of this appendix we describe how schemes already planned or implemented may be "profiled".

We hope that some tutors may be willing to help us develop this appendix into a practical manual, by testing our suggested approach, modifying it as necessary, and providing illustrations and anecdotes for the benefit of others.

A. DETERMINING CONTENT

Background

In section 8 of the main report we discussed the question of **who** should determine content. Contrasting views are:

(i) that this should be a "professional decision", taken by the tutor, a tutorial team, or their advisers.* The arguments for this are:

*"Advisers" could include examining bodies, the sponsors of a scheme, LEA or other inspectors, and so on.

(a) that their experience and knowledge are greater than those of the learners, giving them a better basis for the decision, and
(b) that a choice by the learners will have been determined by their previous conditioning, and that they will therefore unnecessarily restrict their own learning opportunities because of the stereotypes they hold, fears they have, and so on. This approach would expect improved confidence to come from improved skills, and would regard initial discomfort or even resistance on the part of the learner as a normal precursor to the learning of something new.*

(ii) that the decision should be taken by the learner, and that the function of the tutor is to create an atmosphere of trust and to develop the confidence of individuals to the point at which the learners feel able to request what help they see themselves as needing. This approach sees greater skill coming from improved confidence, and a sense of security as being of over-riding importance in promoting learning. It is also argued that if autonomy and an improved self image are the ultimate aims, then the status of the learner must not be "undermined" by others "knowing better" what he or she needs to learn.**

In the same section we described our policy, which takes a middle way between the two views given above. We said there that the young people should be involved in the identification of relevant tasks, but with appropriate input from tutors. In other words, content should be determined by **negotiation.**

We now describe one method by which this policy could be implemented. There are doubtless many ways in which schemes could be developed,*** but this approach has the advantage of providing a framework within which negotiation can take place in a structured fashion. The structure facilitates participation even by timid learners, and also allows the tutor to provide perspectives and information which might otherwise be lacking.

The strategy on which the approach is based comes from the "Work and Learn" materials produced by the ILEA F/HE Curriculum Development Project. We thank them for the idea, but take full responsibility for this particular application of it.

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*It would follow from this that if the learners are allowed to influence what it is they are to learn, then they will probably — according to this view — wish to emphasize things at which they are already competent, and wish to avoid situations and skills about which they feel inadequate.

Thus, to take an example, if it takes until the last day of a scheme for an individual to ask for help with writing, so be it. The risks involved in **imposing an objective, and imposing one which is not seen as relevant by the learner, are too great — in this view — to permit any other course of action.

***It is not likely that any one method, unamended, would be appropriate to all the contexts for which SLS development might be planned. The learners may or may not have succeeded academically, may or may not have had experience of work, may be clear or vague as to their vocational intentions, and so on. The approach described later is probably most suitable for those who have had or are having some work experience.

STAGES IN THE PROCESS

Step 1 Preliminary Analysis

Construct a rough and ready check-list of headings under which students' needs should be considered. This is not intended as a set of syllabus topics or timetable labels, but rather as a device for ensuring that one does not overlook areas of the learner's life which might be significant. For example, one might wish to consider the needs of the individual as:

worker
citizen
private individual
consumer
student (etc.)

Step 2 A Check-List of Tasks

Construct cards or a questionnaire comprising a list of tasks which the individual is likely to need to perform competently in each of these areas. For example:

giving first aid
dealing with enquiries from the public
taking written messages
estimating quantities
handling money
reading timetables
attending interviews
working in a team
arranging Hire Purchase
using a telephone (etc.)

Step 3 Selecting Tasks

Ask the learners (either individually or as a group)* to select those tasks which either they know to be important from their current experience, or which they feel sure will become important in the near future. Provide some blank cards on which the learners can "write in" tasks the tutor has not thought to include. The tasks should then be arranged in order of priority.

The tutor should feel free to attempt to influence the learners' selection and ordering of these tasks, since it is important to make known to the group factors which may affect relative importance (for example, the status of the local employment market, future social/unemployment trends, and so on).** Useful sources of information would obviously

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*The degree to which this exercise is conducted on a group basis or on an individual basis will depend on a combination of factors. These include the facilities available for individual work, and the view of the tutors as to the relative advantages for SLS development of the two ways of working. In addition, the nature of the tasks identified will be influential, since some will imply the need to work as a group, whilst others will imply the need for individual practice.

**Tutors should also watch out for, and argue against, any tendency for the learners to unnecessarily restrict their selection of tasks — because of factors such as a narrow view of what is available to them or stereotyped views of themselves or of particular jobs. It may be, however, that carefully planned experience plus guided reflection is a better remedy for these things than is persuasion.

be careers officers, local employers' organisations, trades unions, and so on. Depending on the time available and the motivation of the learners the tutor may either channel this information to the group, or enable them to acquire it themselves in the course of considering which tasks to include.

The selection and giving of priority to tasks therefore becomes a matter of negotiation between learner and tutor. Ultimately, the view of the learners should prevail, since if the tutor is unable to persuade them of the importance of a given task it is unlikely that his or her insisting on it will motivate them to learn it. On the other hand, everyone concerned will have to recognise that what is included will be constrained by the availability of local resources and expertise.

Step 4 Determining Objectives

We now have a list of tasks ordered and added to by the learners.

This list of tasks, in turn, can now be used to modify (that is, add to, subtract from, and give priority to) the list of learning objectives which the tutors will have originally had in mind (because of their previous experience and educational assumptions). In some cases the tasks selected will be ends in themselves and may therefore be equated with objectives. Other tasks will give an indication of what vehicles may be used for the achievement of certain objectives, or may at least serve as sources of illustrative materials of interest to the students.

For instance, an analysis of the mathematical techniques required to perform certain tasks in industry showed that most of the techniques were already being taught in maths lessons. In other words the previous experience and educational assumptions of the tutors had led them to select the right objectives. The analysis was nevertheless of great value because it provided what had been lacking: examples and illustrative materials which would both motivate students and enable them to apply the techniques in the work situation.

Step 5 Determining Priorities

We now have a list of learning objectives with appropriate content for a given scheme (with known student numbers, facilities and time). It is now necessary to give priority to certain of these objectives — which will be a matter of striking a balance between the significance of the objectives (as determined in negotiations with the learners) and their feasibility and assessability (see paragraph 64 of the main report).

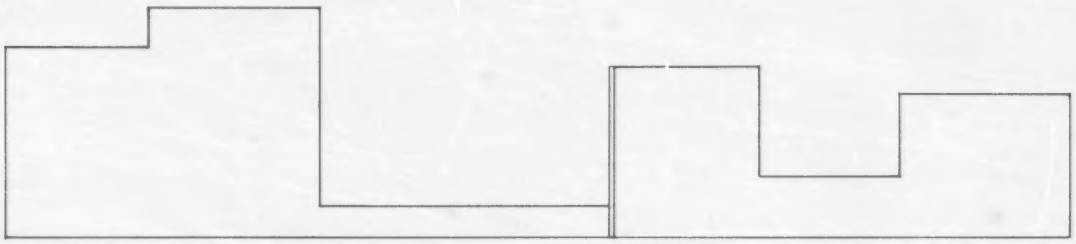
For instance, a highly significant objective may be given less priority if it is thought that its achievement is unlikely in view of student ability, motivation, time available, and so on. Similarly, some highly desirable objectives may be difficult to assess. They should not necessarily be excluded because of that, but it should be borne in mind that a scheme consisting largely of such objectives may cause participants to think they are wasting their time — given that there may be few indicators to mark their progress. Teachers, too, will find the planning and pacing of schemes difficult in such circumstances.

Step 6 Selecting Teaching Approaches

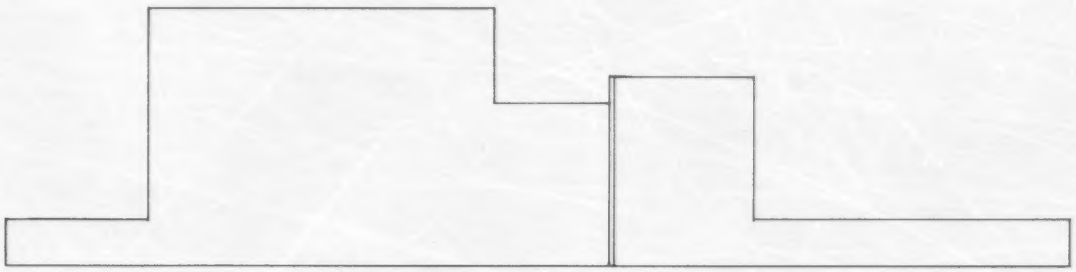
Choice of teaching strategies will be influenced by the tutors' educational assumptions, the nature of the learning objectives selected, the assumed learning styles of the participants,

and the facilities available. In most cases this will result in a combination of approaches being incorporated into a given scheme. However, the route by which this combination is reached will vary between tutors.

For example, some tutors will be very conscious of the characteristics of the learners. Thus they might feel that a given group had "missed out" at school, would respond well to "real life experience", may find the absorption of information difficult or tedious, may need considerable help to understand themselves and their behaviour, and would be keen to learn practical skills. Referring to the "models" described in section 8 of the report, this would give a "profile" as follows:



Other tutors will be more conscious of the learning objectives derived for this group through the processes described earlier. This approach may reveal the need for a substantial amount of information to be acquired, a similar number of specific skills, an awareness of conventional behaviour, and an amount of straightforward experience. This will give the scheme the following profile.



We see the process of profiling, and the subsequent consideration of ways in which any lack of congruence between the profiles may be resolved, as a means by which course teams might develop the scheme which will be most appropriate to their circumstances.

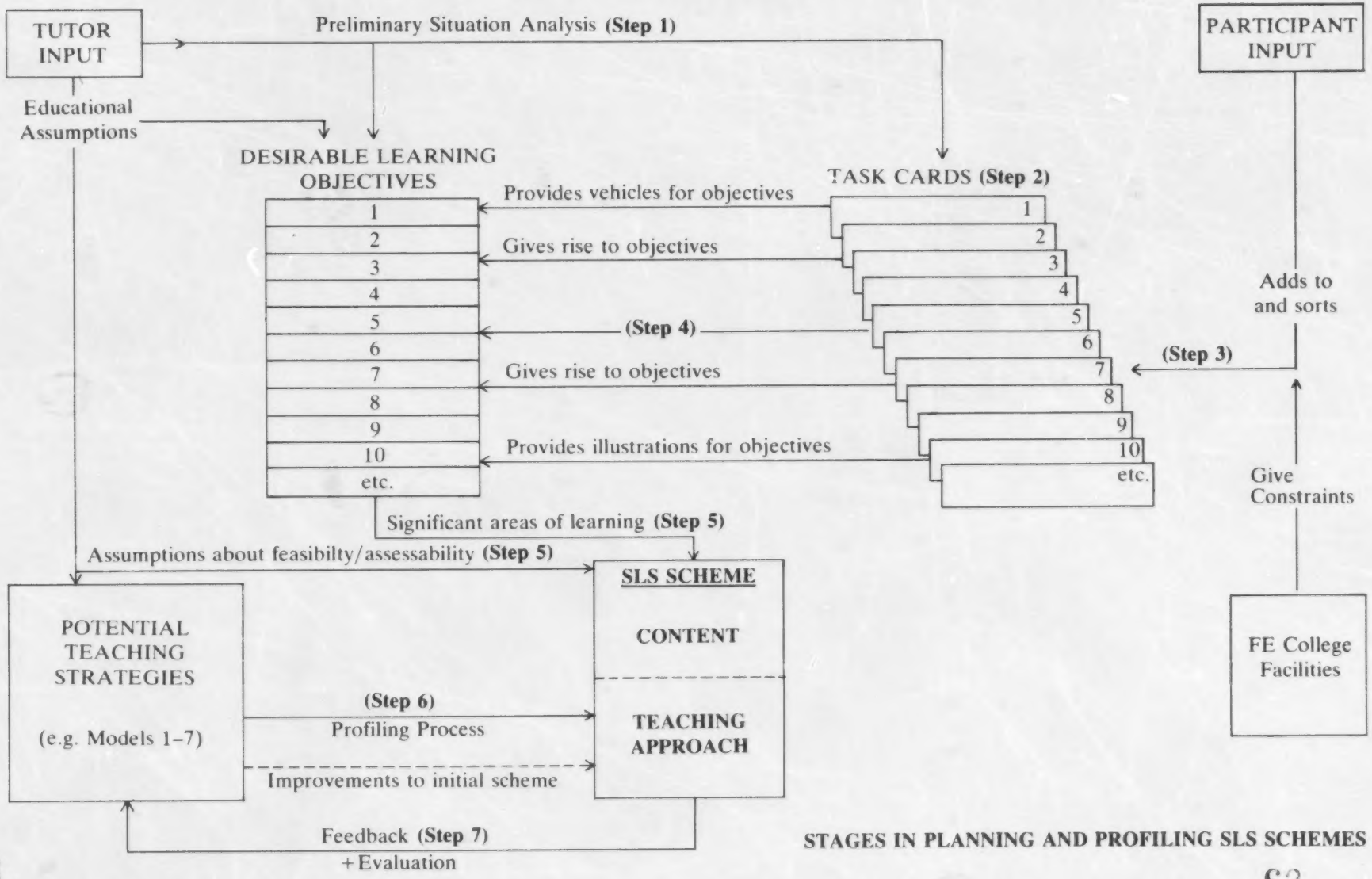
Step 7 Matching Profiles

It is not possible to be dogmatic about how lack of congruence between the profiles may be resolved. It may be that the evidence about the learning style is so strong that this may cause a reassessment of which objectives can be achieved in the time. On the other hand, there are alternative methods of achieving objectives. For instance, it may be that the learners can be directed into certain "real life experiences" which are picked so as to cause them to acquire information which they might otherwise find it tedious to learn. It may also be that, in the course of the scheme, the learners can be taught new ways of learning. In which case, it may be possible for teaching strategies to be modified as the

scheme progresses — in other words, the "profile" at the end of the scheme will be different from that at the beginning.

It is also necessary to consider how the strategies combine. The appropriate combination can help to ensure that any risks associated with a given strategy is counteracted by another, as well as making sure that the potential advantages of a given strategy are achieved.

For those readers who find a pictorial representation helpful, we show the 7 steps described earlier in diagrammatic form on the next page.



STAGES IN PLANNING AND PROFILING SLS SCHEMES

B. PROFILING SLS SCHEMES

In Section 9 of the Report we said:

"In order to "profile" a scheme against the models described in Section 7, we found that we needed to know

what	is being learned
how	it is being learned
why	it is being learned
how much	attention is being given to it.

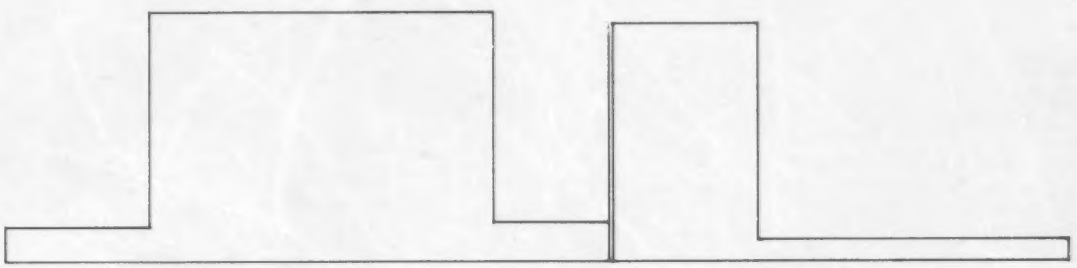
No description of a scheme on paper ever gives us all these factors. The aims and objectives of a scheme may tell us what and why (or who they were written for!) but not how or how much. A timetable may indicate how much and what, but not often how and never why.

This is the reason for our being unable to include in this Report a written specification of a scheme together with its "profile". It is also why we regard the **process** of drawing up a "profile" as being a valuable exercise for a course-team. It should provide them with a more complete view of their scheme than they would otherwise get."

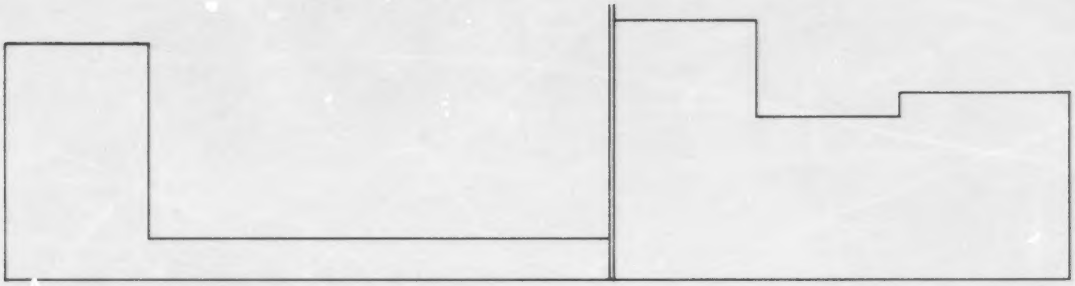
Although we cannot take the paperwork from a "real" scheme and draw up a profile which would do it justice, we can show how profiling works in a general sense, and we can suggest a simple procedure by which tutors might profile their own schemes.

Two examples of different "profiles"

A scheme which is designed for young people with average or just below average previous attainment in literacy and numeracy, which aims to provide them with workshop-based practice in the application of communication skills to tasks which commonly arise in their work and adult life, which has incorporated into it a number of talks from visiting speakers on topics such as the tax system, health and safety at work, and so on, and which finishes with a block of work experience on employers' premises . . . will probably have this kind of profile:



Whereas a scheme which is designed for young people lacking in both motivation and basic skills, which puts them into a series of "real life" situations (such as helping in a nursery school or working in a shop), which then holds group discussions concerned with interpreting these experiences and their feelings about them, attempting to help individuals to identify their strengths, and to identify what they need to learn and where to go for help . . . will probably have a profile like this:



Comparing Profiles

In paragraph 80(a) of the main report we suggest the possibility of comparing the profiles given by a scheme's **intentions** to the profile given by the scheme in **practice.**

Profiling intentions. If the scheme has written aims and objectives, then these can provide the basic information from which to draw up a profile of what is **intended.** Discussion between those involved will also be necessary in order to provide any extra information needed, such as what weighting is being given to which objectives. If aims and objectives have not been written down in formal fashion, then the tutors involved will have to hold a general discussion about their assumptions and intentions, in which case they should be able to draw up a profile much as described in "Step 6" in the earlier part of this appendix.

Profiling practice. One way to do this is to work through the scheme's timetable of activities for a particular week. It is perhaps best to choose the immediately preceding week, since this allows tutors to describe what actually took place rather than what was planned, and it also means that schemes which do not operate within a fixed timetable can be catered for. The procedure is crudely simple. Each learning session is quickly summarised by the tutor concerned, and a decision taken as to which model or models are most clearly represented in it. The initial(s) of the model(s) can then be noted alongside that segment of the timetable. (They are written twice for a double session.) When this has been done for the whole week the number of references to each model is counted up, and a profile constructed from this data. Lack of congruence between the profiles is not necessarily significant. Intentions inevitably relate to the whole scheme, and a given week may not be representative. On the other hand, it may reveal that an intention which is highly emphasised is receiving very little attention in practice, or tutors may discover that while the encouraging of "reflection" (for instance) is thought to be everyone's responsibility, very little such activity actually happens.

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